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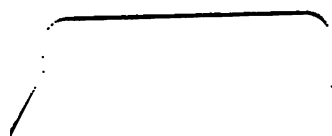
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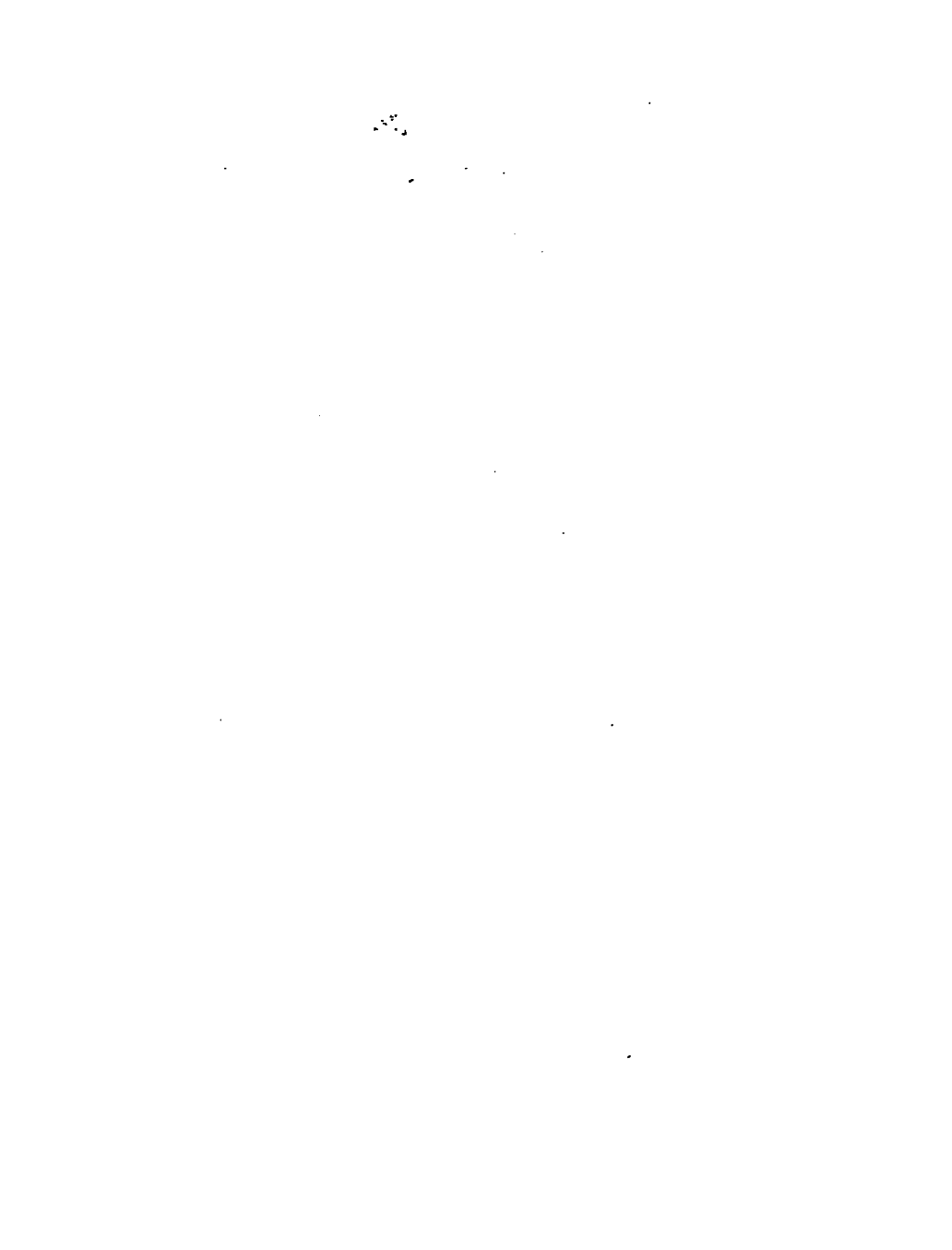
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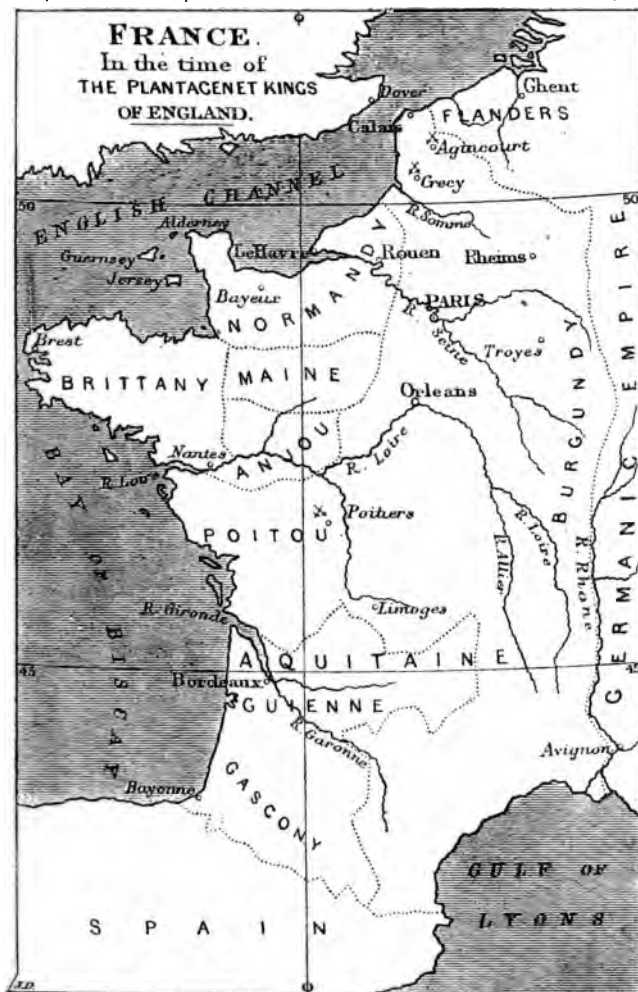
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HISTORICAL READERS

SECOND READER







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SECOND

HISTORICAL READER

BY

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LESSON I.

SKETCH OF ENGLISH HISTORY BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

THE story of our country begins fifty-five years before the birth of Jesus Christ, when the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, landed on our shores. Our island was then called Britain, and its people Britons. Nearly one hundred years passed away before the Romans really tried to conquer it. The Britons were then in an almost savage state, living in mud-built hovels in the midst of the great woods which covered the land. They fought most bravely, but they could not stand against the Romans, who were well armed, and most skilful in making war. Therefore, after a few years' fighting, the island passed under the Roman rule.

The Romans taught the Britons how to build towns, make good clothes, plough the

fields, make roads, and learn trades. Under such teaching the Britons put away their savage customs and rude ways of living. They also learnt something about the true God and the religion of Jesus Christ; for Christian teachers came into the island soon after it fell into the hands of the Romans.

Britain remained under the rule of the Romans until about the year 410 A.D. The Britons were then left to take care of themselves, because the Roman soldiers were all wanted to defend their own country.

But the Britons were soon troubled by the wild savage tribes of the Picts and Scots, who lived in the country now called Scotland. Just then some foreign ships full of fighting men were sailing off the British shores. They were under the command of two brothers named Hengist and Horsa, whose homes were in the low lands lying south of Denmark. They were men of English race, and called themselves Englishmen; but to the Britons they were better known by the name of Saxons. To these men the Britons turned for help against the Picts and Scots, and thus saved themselves by the use of Saxon swords. But the English *leaders*, seeing that Britain was a more beauti-

ful country than their own, resolved to make it their home. They were joined by fresh bands of Englishmen from beyond sea; and at last the greater part of the island fell into their hands. The Britons were driven into the mountainous parts west of the river Severn. They were called by the English settlers Welsh—that is, “strangers”—and by this name their descendants are known to this day.

By the Saxon Conquest two portions of Britain received new names. The land taken by the English was called England, and that part where the Britons found safety was named Wales; that is, the land of the Welsh.

The English, when they first settled here, were not Christians. They worshipped the sun, the moon, and other gods, and called the days of the week after the names of their gods; as Sunday and Monday, which we still use. After a while Christian teachers came from Rome, in Italy, and other places, and persuaded the English to become Christians.

After many years had passed away, other men from over the sea came to take the land

from the English. They were the Danes, or Northmen. They came from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. It was in the wars against these Northmen that the English king, Alfred, made himself famous. Many Danes settled in the east, north, and middle of England, and at last they became so strong that they were able to put one of their own chiefs on the English throne. This was Canute.

After two of Canute's sons had reigned, the crown of England was given to a prince of the old English royal family. This was Edward, commonly known as Edward the Confessor. He had lived from a boy in the northern part of France, which was called Normandy, and there he learnt the French speech and customs. When he died without leaving a child, his friend, Duke William of Normandy, claimed to be the next King of England. But the English chose one of their own nobles, Harold by name, to fill the throne, because they did not want a Norman for their king.

Then Duke William crossed the channel with a large army, and landed on the coast of Sussex in the south of England. Near the town of Hastings a fierce battle with the English took place, in which Harold was slain. After

this victory the Norman duke became King of England.

DATES.

| | |
|--|-------------|
| First coming of Julius Cæsar | 55 B.C. |
| The Romans began the conquest of Britain . | 43 A.D. |
| The Romans leave Britain | 410 " |
| Arrival of Hengist and Horsa | 449 " |
| The kingdom of Kent founded | 457 " |
| Arrival of Augustine | 597 " |
| Union of the English kingdoms under Egbert . | 827 " |
| Reign of Alfred the Great | 871—901 " |
| " Canute the Dane | 1017—1035 " |
| " Edward the Confessor | 1042—1066 " |
| " Harold | 1066 " |
| Battle of Hastings | 1066 " |

SUMMARY.

The old name of our island is Britain. England has had at least two races of people one after the other, and four sets of conquering rulers. The two races of people were first the Britons and next the English or Saxons. The four sets of conquering rulers were the Romans, the English, the Danes, and the Normans.

peo'-ple
con'-quer
clothes

for'-sign
swords
beau'-ti-ful

vic'-tor-y
per-suad'-ed
de-scend'-ant



LESSON II.

ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN KINGS.

(1066 A.D.—1154 A.D.)

WILLIAM the Conqueror was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey in the year 1066, about two months after the battle of Hastings. At that time the whole of England contained only about half the number of people now living in London. In the northern and eastern parts of the country the English fought for some time against the new king, but they were in the end obliged to submit. England and Normandy remained under the same ruler for many years. This island was thus brought to take part in the quarrels that often arose between Normandy and the other great divisions of France. The Norman Conquest wrought many changes in England. Most of the lands passed into new hands, for the Conqueror *claimed* the right of doing what he liked with

the whole country, and as he had the power to do so, he rewarded with gifts of large estates all the chief men who had helped him to win the battle of Hastings. Thus foreigners took the place of English nobles and gentry, who were, as a conquered people, thrust down into the lower ranks of life.

The new lords continued to use their own French tongue, and so, for a long time after the Conquest, there were two languages in use in our country. The King and all the upper classes spoke French, while the middle and lower classes kept up their native English speech. In the course of time the King and the gentry learned to speak English, and in the end French ceased to be used as the fashionable language. But, while the two tongues were in use, many French words became so familiar to Englishmen that they remain in our language to this day. Words describing the food usually eaten, as *beef, mutton, veal, pork, venison, poultry*, are French. So also are such titles of rank as *prince, duke, baron, count, viscount, mayor*.

The Norman lords, living in a conquered country, found it necessary for their safety to erect buildings of great strength for their

dwellings. They therefore built great castles in suitable places on their estates, in which they kept a large number of armed men to overawe the surrounding people. These castles were gloomy places to live in. Their walls were very thick, and the openings to admit the light were few and very small. The dwelling part of the building was enclosed by a high wall, which was also surrounded by a ditch, or moat. From the outside a drawbridge led across the ditch to a strongly fortified gateway which barred the entrance to the castle. The Tower of London is an example of one of these buildings, for it was built in the Norman times; and in many parts of England there are to be seen the ruins of ancient castles.

The English people at this time had no voice in the government of the country. They were allowed, indeed, to keep most of their old laws and customs so far as they did not interfere with the rights and pleasures of their conquerors. The King's advisers in the government were the Norman lords whom he thought fit to summon to his court. With their help he made laws and ruled the country. Some of the barons wanted to act like kings on their own estates. They had their courts to try

people for offences, and meted out punishment just as they liked. But William the Conqueror strove to keep down the power of the barons because he was determined that the royal authority should be supreme. The barons, however, sometimes joined together against the King, and then he was obliged to ask the English people to help him, and this they gladly did, because they were wise enough to see that in supporting one king they might obtain protection from the harsh doings of the Norman lords.

Though the Norman Conquest was a cause of much suffering to the English people, it was not without some benefit to the country. It made England better known to the lands beyond the sea, where there were more learning, better buildings, greater skill in crafts and trade, and more refinement in manners. The new comers also brought this knowledge with them, so that our island soon became equal to other countries in these matters.

The Normans were also a quicker, brighter, and more energetic race than the English. They were more skilful in the use of arms, more accustomed to horsemanship, fond of hunting, and filled with a spirit of adventure.

These qualities they added to the English character; for, as years rolled on, the children and grandchildren of the Norman barons became so attached to their English homes that they took pride in calling themselves Englishmen, and then the unkind feeling that once existed between the conquerors and the conquered passed away, when high and low looked upon each other as parts of one nation.

Two interesting relics of the Norman times have come down to our days in the shape of Domesday Book and the Bayeux Tapestry. Domesday Book is the record of a survey of England made by the order of William the Conqueror. Certain learned men were sent throughout the country to make inquiries about the quantity of land under cultivation, the name of the owners, the number of cattle, and other such things. The results were entered in the book called Domesday. This book was written in Latin, because that was the language usually employed by all learned men. It is still to be seen in the British Museum in London. No other country in the world has such an interesting historical record as Domesday Book.

The Bayeux Tapestry represents in needle-work pictures of the chief events of the Norman Conquest. It is said to have been wrought by the Norman ladies of the court under the direction of the Conqueror's wife. In its pictures we can see how the men of the time were dressed and armed ; how they fought in war and amused themselves in peace ; and many other particulars interesting to know. This stitch-work is preserved in the public library of Bayeux in the north of France, and on this account it is known as the Bayeux Tapestry.

William the Conqueror was followed in order on the throne by his two sons, William Rufus and Henry Beauclerk, and then by his daughter's son Stephen. These four rulers are usually called the Norman kings of England, and their period closes with the year 1154. The crown then passed to Henry Beauclerk's grandson, Henry II., the first of our Plantagenet kings of England.

DATES.

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|----------------|
| Reign of William the Conqueror | . | . | . | 1066—1087 A.D. |
| „ William Rufus | . | . | . | 1087—1100 „ |
| „ Henry Beauclerk | . | . | . | 1100—1135 „ |
| „ Stephen | . | . | . | 1135—1154 „ |

SUMMARY.

When William the Conqueror was crowned, all the people in England were only half as many as the people living in London now. The King gave most of the land to his own countrymen, and the former English owners became poor. The new lords spoke French, and their servants English. The conquerors built great castles for their own safety. The English were ruled according to their own laws, but they had at first no power in the government of their country. The King had a survey made of the whole land, and the results were written down in "Domesday Book," which exists to the present day. The four Norman kings were William I., William II., Henry I., and Stephen.

Tap'-es-try, pictures wrought
in stitch-work to cover

walls, a common work
of ladies in old times.

di-vis'-i-on
con-tin'-u-ed
fa-mil'-i-ar

ver'-i-son
poul'-try
vis' count

mayor
'suit'-a-ble
su-preme'



LESSON III.

THE ENGLISH CHURCH UNDER THE NORMAN KINGS.

THE Norman Conquest wrought many changes in the Church of this country, as it did in that of other nations. The happiness and welfare of nations in those days depended upon the Church, in whose care lay the education and guidance of the people. Clergymen were not only religious teachers, but also directors in social matters, because they were the only learned men. On this account they were employed as the King's advisers at home and as ambassadors abroad. They acted as lawyers, doctors, architects, and sometimes as warriors. For hundreds of years after the Conquest some of the highest posts under the King were filled by bishops and other leading clergymen. It was therefore most important that the state of the Church should be as good as possible.

The Church in England before the Norman Conquest differed in some things from the Church in France. It was less under the control of the Pope—that is to say, the Bishop of Rome, in Italy—than the churches abroad. It always looked up with respect to the Pope, because he was then considered to be the head bishop in Western Europe, but it was more independent and more national than in other countries, perhaps because our country was cut off by the sea from the continent. This separation, however, kept the English Church from the improvements that were taking place abroad. Its clergy fell behind in learning, architecture, music, and discipline. One marked difference between them and the foreign clergy was that most of them were married men.

When William of Normandy became King of England he resolved to bring the English Church into the same state as that in his native land. Indeed the Pope of that day helped him all he could to conquer our island, in order that such a change might be made in its Church. Accordingly, William removed from their posts all the English bishops, except one, and put Normans in their place. A like change was

also made among the other clergy of high rank. The new Archbishop of Canterbury was a learned Italian named Lanfranc, who had been abbot of a famous monastery in Normandy. Under these foreign bishops the English Church was brought more under the control of the Pope, and new customs were introduced, and stricter rules of living were enforced upon the ministers of religion. The parish clergy were not allowed to enter into marriage, and those already married were regarded with little favour.

The new rulers of the Church did not know a word of English, and therefore could never preach to the natives. In writing and in the public prayers they used the Latin language, which was the fashion everywhere in all the west of Europe. Sermons, whenever they were preached, were delivered in the vulgar tongue by the native clergy.

William the Conqueror also took care to make the English Church his assistant in keeping down the power of his great lords. For this purpose he made it more powerful than it ever had been before in this country. In earlier times the nobles and other great men of the nation used to take part with the

bishops in discussing church affairs. The bishops then did not think that they ought to be left alone to do as they pleased in church management, because the Church and the government of the country were so closely joined together as to be almost one and the same thing. So the bishops sat side by side with other officers as judges in the courts of the shire, where all kinds of offences were tried, both those of the Church and those of the people. But the Conqueror made a great change in this matter. He moved the bishops from the county courts, and allowed them to have courts of their own, over which they were to preside, and judge all religious questions. In this way he prevented the barons from meddling with church business so as to use it for their own advantage; and at the same time he created a power that could act as a check upon the might of the lords. So from the time of the Conquest there were three great powers in the country—namely, the King, the Church, and the Barons.

But though William raised the English Church into a position of greater influence, he took care to keep it under his own authority. When the Pope demanded to be regarded as

head of the King himself, and so to have the chief authority in the English Church, William refused, and said that he would not allow him to interfere in England without his consent. Thus the King showed that he was determined to keep the Church of England under the power of the Crown, and maintain it, as it always had been, a national Church. As long as William lived he was able to do this, but during the reign of his successors the Pope's power so increased that the Church fell more and more under the control of the Bishop of Rome. The Church courts, moreover, increased in authority. They meddled with business that did not rightly belong to them, and at last serious quarrels arose between the King and the chief bishops.

We have seen, then, that under the Norman Kings the English Church was much changed, and that its power greatly increased.

SUMMARY.

The Norman Conquest brought the English Church into closer connection with the Pope. The chief English clergy were displaced by foreigners, who knew no English. The services were in Latin. The King would not allow the clergy to sit in the same courts as the judges, but gave them

courts of their own, and used their influence against the barons. Thus there were three great powers in the State—the King, the Church, and the Barons.

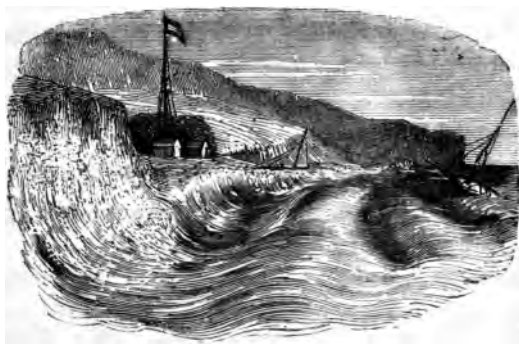
Ar'-chi-test, a chief builder.

Mon'-as-ter-y, a dwelling of monks.

con'-quest
guid'-ance
law'-yer

war'-ri-or
con-trol'
al-read'-y

as-sist'-ant
dis-cuss'-ing
in'-flu-ence



LESSON IV.

HENRY PLANTAGENET. 1154 A.D.—1189 A.D.

THE time of the Norman kings ended, as we saw in the Second Lesson, with the death of Stephen. The new king, Henry II., who was next chosen to fill the English throne, was the first of a long line of kings. His mother, Matilda, was the daughter of Henry Beauclerk, and his father was Geoffrey, the Earl of Anjou, a powerful French nobleman whose family name was Plantagenet. The reason why the Earls of Anjou were so called shows how family names arose. Up to those days people were only known by their Christian names, as Harold and William. But as there would often be several neighbours with the same Christian name, a need was felt for some means of showing which was meant, and so the custom grew up of adding the name of a trade, or place, or of something noteworthy in a person's manner or face, as, for instance, John

the Smith (John Smith), Thomas of London (Thomas London) Richard the Black (Richard Black). Now it happened that one of the Earls of Anjou always wore in his cap a sprig of the broom-plant, which in French was called plante-de-genet, and so ever after the family was named Plantagenet.

Henry of Anjou, better known as Henry Plantagenet, was a young man when he became King of England. He was at that time the lord of the third part of France, for France was then divided into dukedoms under the rule of great nobles. A glance at the map of France will show how much of the country was under the rule of the English King. Henry II. was, therefore, the most powerful king in Europe.



BROOM, OR PLANTA
GENISTA.

Stephen left England in a wretched state. During his reign the barons built many castles, which they filled with hired soldiers from abroad, and tried to set themselves up as so many petty kings. How to deal with these men was the first thing Henry had to decide. He was too wise a ruler to allow his nobles to

become strong enough to defy him, and so he at once ordered all the new castles to be pulled down, and the hired soldiers to be sent out of the country. This action pleased the common people and won their support; indeed they were always ready to join the King in his attempts to keep the barons from becoming too strong. For at this time in our history the barons often quarrelled with the King, and it was therefore the aim of both parties to make themselves as strong as possible. The common people, who were nearly all English, had no voice in the government of the country, as working men have nowadays; but yet their swords were powerful, and these they were ready to use against the lords of the soil, because they saw that Henry's doings were in their favour.

Besides pulling down the newly built castles, Henry did another good thing for the happiness of his English subjects when he sent officers throughout the country to see that right and justice were done by the rich to the poor. After the Norman Conquest the great lords set up courts on their lands to settle disputes and try people charged with offences. In these courts the barons did pretty much as

they liked, for there was no higher power at hand to see that right was done, and it was almost impossible for people to carry their complaints to the King, because it was not easy to travel. A journey then could only be made on horseback or on foot, because the roads were very bad. In summer time, when the weather was dry, a waggon or cart might be used. Then, again, the roads often led through woods where thieves and robbers made their home, so that travellers did not dare to journey alone.

Henry knew the wrongs likely to arise in the baronial courts, and formed a very wise plan to stop them. He chose a body of officers, able and learned, and trained in the law, to visit the courts in his name, and deal out justice to all persons alike. These men were known as the King's Justices or Judges, and thus by their means the royal power reached to every part of the kingdom. This act of the King helped to do away with one of the great evils that followed the incoming of Norman lords. The conquered English now began to feel themselves safe from the unjust doings of their new masters.

From Henry's plan of sending out justices

arose the custom we have at the present day of Judges of Assizes visiting at fixed times every county in England.

In the time of this able king, Ireland was brought under the rule of England ; but the story of this event must be told by itself.

Henry Plantagenet was greatly helped in all his plans by Thomas à Becket, about whom we shall read in the next lesson.

SUMMARY.

Henry II. was the first of the Plantagenet Kings. His mother was Matilda, daughter of Henry I., and his father was Geoffrey of Anjou, called Plantagenet. From his father he had great domains in France, besides the dukedom of Normandy from his grandfather. By pulling down many new castles Henry lessened the power of the barons, who oppressed the people. He also gave justice to the poor by sending judges to travel through the land. The custom has been continued to this day.

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| Bar'-ons , lords holding land from the King, and having dependants who | | held land from them. Their dependants had to follow them in war. |
|---|--|--|

neigh'-bours
meant
duke'-dom

coun'-try
sold'-i-er
pos'-si-ble

now'-a-days
com-plaints'
of'-fic-ers

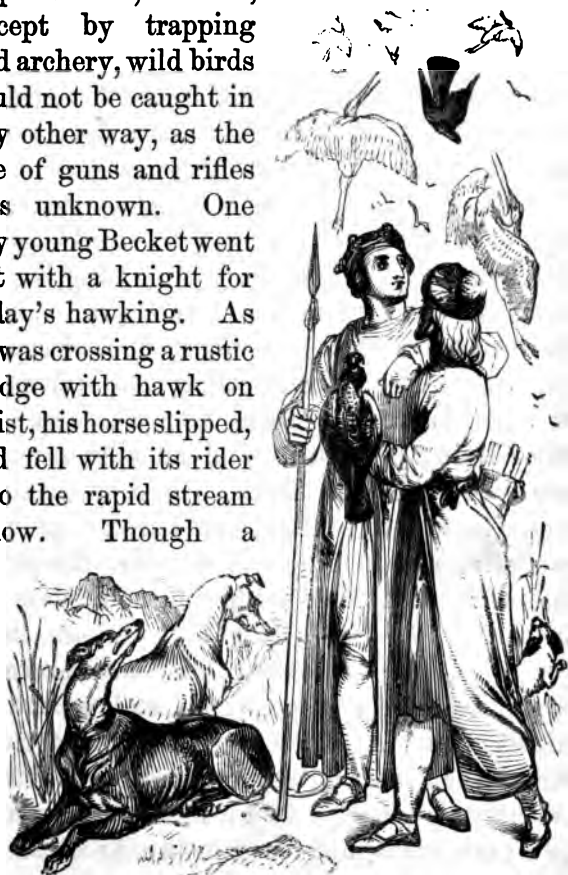
LESSON V.

HOW THOMAS À BECKET, A MERCHANT'S SON,
BECAME CHANCELLOR OF ENGLAND.

THOMAS À BECKET was the son of a rich London merchant of Norman descent. As a boy he seemed so sharp and fond of learning that his father spared no money or trouble in his schooling. Becket grew into a tall handsome youth, full of spirit, and fond of sport and all games of skill.

In those days a merchant's home was his place of business. He did not live, as now, in a fine house amid pretty grounds outside the town, but where he carried on his trade there he dwelt with his apprentices and workmen about him. Sometimes men high in station came on business to Becket's house, and there they learnt to know and like young Thomas, and asked him to join them in their games. Once he narrowly escaped drowning when out

for a day's sport. Hawking was then one of the favourite out-door amusements of the upper classes, because, except by trapping and archery, wild birds could not be caught in any other way, as the use of guns and rifles was unknown. One day young Becket went out with a knight for a day's hawking. As he was crossing a rustic bridge with hawk on wrist, his horse slipped, and fell with its rider into the rapid stream below. Though a



swimmer, the youth would not make for the bank until he had saved the hawk ; but in the attempt to do so he was swept by the current towards the water-wheel of a neighbouring mill, and had not the miller seen the accident and stopped the wheel, most likely there would have been an end of Becket. This story shows the stuff the young fellow was made of.

In those times the only way by which a person of the lower ranks of life could rise to high place in the country was through the Church. The ministers of the Church, who were also called clergymen and clerks, were then the only men who could read and write, and this is the reason why men who now earn their living by writing and keeping accounts are styled clerks. A poor boy or tradesman's son, if he showed fitness, might become a Church minister, rise to high office under the King, and thus take rank with the nobles of the land.

The friends of Thomas à Becket advised him to take service in the Church, and mentioned his name, as that of a clever young man, to the Archbishop of Canterbury. He joined the Archbishop's staff, and by working well rose to a high place, and became the Archbishop's

closest friend. When Henry Plantagenet became King of England, he wanted the services of an able Churchman in his court to manage all writing business and take care of the royal seal. The person who filled such an office was called the Chancellor, and for hundreds of years he was always a clergyman. Becket's name was brought to the King's notice, and thus the London merchant's son became Chancellor of England. In this office he was always about the King's person, advising him in all matters that had to do with the business of the State at home and abroad. The use of clergymen for this work has long been done away with, because learning has become more wide-spread.

As Chancellor, Becket became a great favourite with the King. He lived and dressed in splendid style, and entered with spirit into all the games of his royal master. The daily meals in his princely house were attended by barons and knights, and sometimes the King rode into the rush-strewn hall to take a seat at the festive board. There gold and silver dishes laden with the choicest meats, and costly goblets brimming with the richest wines, bore witness to the riches, splendour, and spirit of the gallant Chancellor.

When a new Archbishop was wanted to fill the See of Canterbury, King Henry thought that no one was so well suited for that high office as his dear friend the Chancellor. It is said that Becket at first refused the offer, and said plainly that the King would repent his choice. But Henry would take no denial, and thus Becket rose to the highest place in the English Church. What befell him in that office belongs to another lesson.

SUMMARY.

Thomas à Becket was the son of a rich London merchant. He took service with the Archbishop of Canterbury, and was then recommended to Henry II. The King made him his Chancellor, and afterwards, even against Becket's wish, made him Archbishop of Canterbury.

Hawk-ing, catching birds by
means of trained hawks.
It was a common sport

before fire-arms were in-
vented.

de-scent'
learn'-ing
trou'-ble

hand'-some
bus'-i-ness
arch'-er-y

swim'-mer
a-muse'-ment
ac-counts'





CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

LESSON VI.

THOMAS À BECKET AS ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

WHEN Becket was made Archbishop of Canterbury he became quite a changed man. We read in the previous Lesson how gay and splendid his life was as Chancellor. Now when he became the highest bishop in the Church of England, he did not think that he ought to live any longer in the King's court feasting and merry-making with the young lords. So he put aside all his splendour, lived

on the simplest food, and wore clothing of the plainest kind. He gave up the office of Chancellor, because he wished to give all his time to his duties as Archbishop.

King Henry was not pleased to see these changes, and he was vexed also to lose the services of Becket as Chancellor. He began, therefore, to look coldly upon him, and after a while to dislike him, and quarrel with him.

The strife that arose between the King and Archbishop was about the claim of the clergy to be free from trial in the King's courts. The clergy said that they ought only to be tried in the bishops' courts for any offence charged against them. Persons in the service of the clergy, as the grave-digger, or the man who cleaned the church and tolled the bell, claimed the same right of trial; this was called *benefit of clergy*. So it came to pass that many great crimes were done by some of the clergy, or their servants, for which very little punishment was given in the church courts. King Henry, therefore, wished to put an end to this wrong. He thought that his courts, where his officers dealt out justice, were the right places to try all persons charged with crime. When he made

Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, he looked for his help to bring this matter about. But Becket stood up for the claim of the clergy, and thus made the King his bitter foe.

Most of the bishops and all the great lords were on Henry's side. They met in one of the royal castles, and drew up a set of laws such as the King desired. These were called the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, because Clarendon, in Wiltshire, was the name of the place where they were drawn up. Becket at first said he would not obey them, but afterwards he agreed to do so. He, however, changed his mind again, and then, believing his life to be in danger, fled to France.

For six years Becket kept away from England. The French bishops looked upon him as a sufferer in the cause of the Church, and urged him to stand out against the English King. Influenced by advice of this sort, Becket kept up his stubborn and proud temper, and refused to obey the laws of his country. At length, through the influence of the King of France, Henry allowed the Archbishop to return to England. But unhappily he came back in a very bad spirit. As soon

as he landed, he took steps to punish some of the English bishops, because they had obeyed



MURDER OF BECKET.

the King's wishes. When Henry heard of this conduct, he cried out, in a fit of passion,

“Is there no one in my kingdom who will rid me of this troublesome, low-born priest?” These rash words of the King brought about Becket’s murder.

Four of Henry’s knights, armed from head to foot, went straight to Canterbury. They found the Archbishop in the cathedral, and tried to take him a prisoner. In the struggle that then took place Becket was struck to the ground by the blow of a sword, and his brains were scattered upon the pavement.

The blame of this murder fell upon Henry, because of the rash words he had spoken. He therefore promised not to put in force the laws which had brought about the quarrel between himself and the Archbishop. The Bishop of Rome, who was chief bishop in the west of Europe, and was called the Pope, said that Thomas à Becket was a saint and martyr. People then looked upon the Archbishop’s grave as a very holy place, and thought it a good thing to visit it. Thus it came to pass that every year thousands of persons went to Canterbury Cathedral to pray at Becket’s tomb. These pilgrims, for so they were called, always left a present of some sort in honour of the saint, whose shrine in time

became rich in gold, silver, and precious stones.

DATE.

Murder of Archbishop Becket . . . 1170 A.D.

SUMMARY.

In the days of Henry II. the clergy claimed to be subject only to the bishops' courts and not to the King's, whatever crimes they might commit. They claimed the same "benefit of clergy" also for all their servants. The King thought both claims were wrong; Becket, when made Archbishop, maintained them. The lords and bishops together passed laws called the "Constitutions of Clarendon," to set aside the "benefit of clergy" in cases of crime. Becket was angry, and fled to France. After six years he came back, and then troubled the King so much that four knights, thinking to please their master, killed the Archbishop in his own cathedral. Becket was afterwards honoured as a saint.

Cath-e-dral, the chief church in a bishop's *see* (i.e. the district under a bishop's rule). *Cathedra* means a seat, and the cathedral is

so called because it has a bishop's throne.
Char'-red, blackened by burning.
Pil'grims, travellers to a sacred place.

splen'-did
 of-fence'
 ben'-e-fit

pun'-ish-ment
 cas'-tles
 urg-ed

stub'-born
 scat-ter-ed
 sil'-ver

LESSON VII.

HOW IRELAND WAS ADDED TO THE ENGLISH CROWN.



IN the year after Becket's murder, Ireland came under the power of England. The Romans knew that island by the name of Hibernia, but they never tried to add it to their empire. The people who lived in it at that time were of a race akin to the ancient Britons, and had the same kind of speech and religion. But when the Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, were conquering Kent, the Christian religion was fast spreading among the Irish, mainly through the preaching of St. Patrick.

England made no attempt to meddle with Ireland until the reign of Henry II. The Irish people, although they were Christians, were then in a very rude state. They were split up into many divisions, and were often at war among themselves. Their quarrels at last placed the island in the hands of England. One of the five kings, who ruled in Ireland, ran away with the wife of one of the other kings, and kept her in an island in the midst of a bog. The prince who did this was king of the south-eastern part of the island, called Leinster, and his name was Dermot. His conduct brought on a war which cost him his kingdom. He came over to England, and begged the help of Henry, saying that he would hold Leinster under England, if the English King would help him to win it back.

Now there were many barons in England who had taken part in the strife between Matilda and Stephen, as we read in the first book of these History Lessons, and they were glad to fight in any cause for pay. Henry gave them leave to join Dermot, if they liked. Among the number that offered Dermot the use of their swords was the Earl of Pem-

broke, who was also called Strongbow. To him Dermot promised his daughter in marriage, and said he should be heir to the kingdom of Leinster. On these promises Strongbow gathered together some hundreds of men, and crossed over to Ireland. They were all so well armed that the poor Irish, unused to armour, had no chance against them. Dublin soon fell into Strongbow's hands, and Leinster was forced to receive again Dermot as its king. In a short time Dermot died, and Strongbow became King of Leinster.

Henry, however, was unwilling that one of his nobles should take the rank of king. He was angry with Strongbow, and ordered him to return to England. Then the Earl hurried back and promised to hold Leinster under the English Crown. So Henry and the Earl sailed over to Ireland. At Dublin all the Irish princes, except those in the north of the island, came to Henry, and promised to take him as their lord. Thus the King of England became also Lord of Ireland; but nearly four hundred years passed away before an English monarch took the title of King of Ireland.

Since the time of Henry II. Ireland has always remained under the rule of England. But the kings who followed Henry made some very harsh laws for the government of that island. By this unwise conduct the Irish people were driven to dislike everything English.

The last years of Henry's reign were very unhappy, on account of the conduct of his sons. They wanted their father to put them as rulers over the provinces in France, and because he refused to do so they made war against him. When he learnt that his youngest and favourite son, John, had also joined in this unnatural rebellion, the news broke his heart. "Cursed be the day on which I was born," said the grieved and dying King; "and cursed be the children I leave behind me." Thus passed away the first of the English Plantagenets.

DATE.

Conquest of Ireland 1171 A.D.

SUMMARY.

The ancient name of Ireland was Hibernia. Until the time of Henry II. the English kings did not rule Ireland. There were five native kings there.

One of them, Dermot, carried off the wife of another, and then, having lost his kingdom, asked Henry II. to help him. Henry allowed Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, to help Dermot. Strongbow married Dermot's daughter and became King of Leinster. Henry did not like this, and Strongbow, to satisfy him, got the Irish princes to take the English King for their lord.

Pro'-vince, a part of a kingdom
lying away from the
chief seat of government,

and ruled by some one in
the name of the King.

em'-pire
peo'-ple
re-li'-gi-on

at-tempt'
med'-dle
arm'-our

of'-fer-ed
gov'-ern-ment
re-bel'-li-on



LESSON VIII.

RICHARD I.—THE LION HEART. (1189 A.D.—
1199 A.D.)

RICHARD I. became King of England after the death of his father Henry II. Almost the whole of his reign of ten years was passed away from this country. He won a great name as a soldier in the Holy Land, where he did such brave deeds that men called him "Lion Heart." But before speaking of the wars in that country, something must be said of the cruel treatment of the Jews in England when Richard was crowned.

The Jews were the descendants of the people of Israel, about whom we read in the Bible. They had at this time no country to call their own, but they made their home in any land where they could earn a living. Many of them settled in the chief towns of England, and as they were very good men of

business, they grew rich and became the money-lenders of the nation. They were much disliked by all classes of people, because they were thought to be very greedy of gain. Oftentimes they were so harshly treated that they were obliged to buy the protection of some powerful baron with gifts of money. On the day when Richard was made King some rich London Jews attended to offer him presents. They were set upon by the mob, and several of them were murdered on the spot. Their houses in the city were set on fire, and no mercy was shown either to young or old. As no one was punished for these crimes, the spirit of hatred against the Jews broke out in other places. At York a fearful slaughter took place. Five hundred Jews, men, women, and children, ran into the castle for safety, and fastened the gates. A crowd of the townspeople gathered round the walls and clamoured for the blood of the wretched people within. Then each married Jew, seeing no hope of escape, slew his wife and children, and afterwards plunged the weapon into his own breast. The others placing their treasures in a heap, set them on fire, and threw themselves upon the burning

pile. When the cruel rabble broke through the gates, they found nothing but the charred remains of the unhappy Jews.

SUMMARY.

Richard I., the son of Henry II., was called "Lion Heart," because of his bravery. When he was crowned, some Jews in London offered him a present. The mob attacked them. The riot spread to other places, and in York 500 Jews perished in the castle, where they had taken refuge.

reign
earn

pro-tec'-tion
slaugh-ter

clam'-our-ed
wretch-ed



LESSON IX.

THE CRUSADES.

THOUGH Richard was King for ten years, only six months of his reign were passed in England. The chief cause of this will be learned in this lesson. He cared more for fighting than for peaceful rule, and he wanted to play a great part amongst the Kings of Europe.

By this time Normandy had begun to be regarded as a foreign possession, and the English King feared that this home of his fathers might become part of the French kingdom. He therefore spent a great deal of money in building a castle there to guard the border. He was very proud of this fortress, and gave it the name of "Saucy Castle," because he thought it could defy all enemies. But, as will be seen in the course of this history, Normandy and France were naturally so

bound together that they could not be kept apart.

Richard I. cared very little about England. His chief wish was to take part in the wars in the Holy Land, which had been going on for many years. These wars were called Crusades, and

arose in this way. Christians of all countries always spoke of the land in which Jesus Christ lived and died as holy, and believed that it was a pious and praiseworthy act to visit its sacred places. In course of time that country fell into the hands of people who were not Christians.

Then the clergy of

England and of France said it was a shame to leave the Holy Land in the power of these people. So they stirred up kings, barons, and common people to take up arms to drive the infidels out of the holy places. Those men who joined in these wars wore the figure of a cross on



KNIGHT.

their dress, and on this account they were called Crusaders, and the wars in which they fought were called the Crusades.

As a Crusader no one fought more bravely than Richard, King of England. He was ever foremost in battle, and was never daunted by the greater forces of the enemy. Once he dashed alone into a town where there were three thousand of the enemy, and, shouting the battle-cry, "St. George!" frightened the enemy into flight. At another time, aided by a few knights and cross-bowmen, he overthrew a force seven times as great as his own. By such deeds as these he won the name of "the Lion Heart." Long after the Crusades were over the courage and bravery of "the Lion Heart" were talked about by the people of the Holy Land. If a horse started at some object on the roadside its rider would say, "Dost thou think that yonder is King Richard?" Mothers also quieted their crying children by threats that King Richard would take them.

Richard, in spite of all his brave fighting, failed to drive the infidels out of the Holy Land. On his way back to England he was taken prisoner by some Christian princes with

whom he had had a quarrel, and so the royal crusader was kept for months in a castle in Germany, until a large sum of money was paid by the English people for his freedom.

The Crusades went on for another hundred years. So much were they talked about that in France and Germany thousands of boys and girls started for the Holy Land, foolishly thinking that their young arms could do what brave and strong men had failed to do. Not one of these young people ever reached that country. Most of them died on the way, and many of the rest were sold as slaves in the eastern slave-markets.

Though the Crusades failed in their object, they kept the armies of the unbelievers from coming into the western countries of Europe, as most likely they would otherwise have done. Trade also grew between the eastern and western parts of Europe; and thus, though much blood was shed in the long wars of the Crusades, some good arose out of them.

King Richard lost his life in a petty quarrel in France. While besieging the castle of one of his French lords, he was struck by an arrow shot from the walls, and died in a few days.

Only six months of his reign of ten years were spent in England.

SUMMARY.

In the time of Richard the Holy Land had been conquered by Eastern people who were not Christians. The nations of Europe went to war to deliver it ; and these wars were called Crusades, from the Latin word for a cross. Richard went on a crusade, and in coming back was captured in Germany. The English people paid for his freedom. Not long afterwards he was killed while trying to take a French castle.

In'-fid-el, faithless, a term applied by people of all re-

ligions to those who do not believe with them.

Daunt-ed, made afraid.

sa'-cred
pi'-ous
fig'-ure

crus-ade'
fright-en-ed
cour'-age

brav'-e-ry
fool'-ish-ly
quar'-rel



LESSON X.

JOHN AND THE POPE. (1199 A.D.—1216 A.D.)

As Richard left no son, his brother John was chosen by the great men of England to fill the throne. An older brother than John had died, leaving a boy named Arthur, who was twelve years of age at the time of Richard's death. If that young prince had lived in our days, he would have been made king, because the crown now descends to the eldest son, or, if he is dead, to the eldest living son. But it was not so settled in the early time of our history. The great men in the land claimed the right of choosing the king. They chose one of the royal house, but their choice did not always follow the rule observed now: namely, the eldest son of the dead king, or, if he also were dead, upon his son. This fact will explain the reason why young Arthur was not made king.

John was afraid that his nephew would take

all the French provinces belonging to the English Crown. By chance Arthur fell a prisoner into his uncle's hands, and was never heard of again. Arthur's friends said that he was murdered by John. Whether this is true or not, we cannot say ; but no eye ever beheld the poor boy afterwards. The French King took up Arthur's cause, and seized nearly all the English provinces in France. After all, the loss of these provinces was a good thing for England. Many of the nobles in this country had also large estates in France, so that they cared as much for one country as the other. But when their foreign lands fell under the rule of the French King, they were obliged to choose under which King they would live. So most of them decided to serve King John, and began to look upon England as their real home and to call themselves Englishmen.

King John governed England very badly, and the people were unhappy under him. He wanted to do just as he pleased with everybody in the land.

He had a serious quarrel with the Pope of Rome about the choice of an Archbishop of Canterbury. The Pope then was a most able

bishop, and his power was as great as that of any king in Europe. He took upon himself the right of choosing an Englishman, named Stephen Langton, to be the Archbishop of Canterbury. Now the Kings of England always had a voice in saying who should be the bishops of the English Church, so that, when the Pope made Langton Archbishop without John's consent, he did an act of wrong to the Crown of England. When, therefore, John refused to allow Langton to come into the country he acted rightly, and if he had been a good king he might have had the support of the nobles and common people to defend his royal rights. The Pope tried to win submission from the King by putting a stop to religious worship in the country. He put the kingdom under what was called an *Interdict*. This was a decree by which the churches were closed against the people, the bells in the steeple were silent, no burials were allowed in the churchyards, and the dead were placed in common ground without a prayer or other religious act, and only to infants and dying persons were the clergy allowed to minister. The Interdict lasted for six years, but though *it was* sad for the people to be without the

comfort of religion, yet John cared nothing about it. He punished the clergy who obeyed the Pope's order by plundering their lands, and refusing them the protection of the law. A man was once brought before him for the murder of a priest. "Let him go," said the King, "he has killed my enemy."

When the Pope saw that the Interdict had no effect upon John he pronounced against him sentence of excommunication. By this the King was cut off from the Church and ceased to be considered a Christian. So far as the Pope could make him one he became a heathen. His people, moreover, were no longer bound to do him service, or look up to him as their King. Even this severe sentence had no effect for a time upon John, and he might have gone on defying the Pope, if he had had the support of his own subjects. But his bad ways turned the hearts of the people from him, and in the end he was obliged to give way and receive Langton, because the Pope had told the King of France to take a great army into England and make himself its king.

SUMMARY.

When Richard I. died in 1199, his brother, John, was chosen to be King. His nephew, Arthur, would

have been chosen, only he was too young. The boy disappeared. The French King charged John with murdering Arthur, and took away the English possessions in France. This turned out in the end a good thing for England, by making the King and the barons pay more attention to this country. The Pope made Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury without asking John's consent. This led to a great contest, in which the King had to yield, because he was a bad ruler and the people did not support him.

De-cree', a formal order made by authority.

ob-serv'-ed
pris-on-er
seiz-ed

es-tates'
de-ci'-ded
se'-ri-ous

con-sent'
sub-mis'-sion
o-bey-ed





SIGNING OF MAGNA CARTA.

LESSON XI.

JOHN AND MAGNA CARTA.

THE choice of Stephen Langton to be Archbishop of Canterbury turned out to be a good one, because he worked well for the happiness of England. He saw how badly John was ruling the country, and he felt that he ought to do something to put a stop to the King's unjust doings. So, being a learned man, he pointed out to the barons and bishops the laws which the King was always breaking, and he

advised them to write these and other laws, and make the King put his name to them, as a sign that he would keep them. This, therefore, they did. They put in writing all their demands, that is to say, they drew up a "charter" (or "paper") of their liberties. At first John refused to agree to them, saying in a passion "they may as well ask for my crown." But the barons made war against him and forced him to meet them in a meadow on the banks of the Thames, near Windsor. There, in that field called Runnymede, King John fixed his seal to the charter, which has always been named the Great Charter. The date when this event took place was 1215 A.D.

The Great Charter was written in Latin, because in those days all our laws were written in that language. On this account it is commonly called Magna Carta, for such is the meaning of Great Charter in Latin. It is now to be seen, brown and shrivelled with age, in the British Museum in London.

Much of the freedom that we now enjoy in England was secured to us by the Great Charter. No freeman, however poor he be, can be sent to prison, or punished in any way, except by the law of the land, and after a fair

trial. All men can travel out of the kingdom and return when they please. The King or Queen cannot put taxes upon the country just as they please. These, and other rights like them, are set down in Magna Carta, and for this reason we ought to prize that famous document.

King John tried his best to destroy the great work done at Runnymede. He brought into the country foreign soldiers to punish the barons for making him sign Magna Carta, and he got the Pope to call Archbishop Langton to account, and also to declare that the Charter should not be kept. With his foreign help John marched through England from south to north, plundering and ravaging the lands of the men who withstood him at Runnymede. Then the barons in despair offered the crown of England to the eldest son of the King of France. The French prince came at once with an army and made himself master of the southern and eastern counties. Thus England was again threatened with another French conquest; but the sudden death of King John saved the country from such a misfortune. As he was crossing the Wash, in the East of England, at low water with an army, the tide

came up rapidly, and carried away his baggage, stores, and treasures. Vexed at the loss he fell sick, and died in a few days at Newark Castle, in Nottinghamshire. Some writers of that time say that he was poisoned, but there is no proof of such a thing.

No king in England since this one has borne the name of John; it may be because the rule of John was so shameful.

For very many years after the reign of John, the barons and the common people were often obliged to struggle for the liberties granted in the Charter, because one king after another tried to set it at nought. In every case the king was in the end forced to agree to the people's rights.

DATE.

Magna Carta signed 1215 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Archbishop Langton saw that King John was always breaking the laws, and he advised the barons to make the King sign a paper, promising to avoid the wrongs of which they complained. John was unwilling; but the barons were too strong for him, and he signed it at Runnymede in 1215. This was Magna Carta, the Great Charter. Its chief points were that no one should

be punished without a fair trial, and that no taxes should be laid on the nation without the consent of the great men of the land.

Shriv'-el-led, dry and wrinkled.
Mu-se'-um, a place where collections of instructive objects are kept.

Doc'-u-ment, a written paper, or parchment.
De-spair', hopelessness.

char'-ter
mead'-ow

plun'-der-ing
threat'-en-ed

bag'-gage
pois'-on-ed



MAGNA CARTA ISLAND.

LESSON XII.

HENRY III., AND THE STRUGGLE FOR THE GREAT CHARTER (1216 A.D.—1272 A.D.)

HENRY III. was a little boy ten years old when his father John died. Although a child had never been King of England, many of the leading barons thought it better to rally round little Henry than suffer another French conquest. So the young prince was crowned at Gloucester because his friends were powerful there, and London was in the hands of his enemies. Soon after the forces of the French prince were beaten at Lincoln. So great was the spoil taken in this fight that the battle is known in our history as the "Fair of Lincoln." About the same time a French fleet was defeated off Dover by the ships of Kent. This victory was due to a trick of the English commander, who, having the wind in his favour, *threw lime* into the air, which when blown into

the eyes of the French, made them an easy prey. After these victories the son of the French King and all his friends were driven out of the country.



A MITRED ABBOT

The reign of Henry III. was the longest but one in our history. George III., the grandfather of Queen Victoria, reigned longer than he did. Under the long rule of Henry, the nobles and the common people became more friendly with each other than they had hitherto been. The barons, whose forefathers came as strangers into the land, now took pride in calling themselves Englishmen, and were always ready to lead the com-

mon people in everything that made for the good of England.

We saw in the previous lesson how the barons won Magna Carta, and we also read that the freedom granted by that famous Charter had to be jealously guarded. In this reign the barons and people were obliged to keep up the struggle for their rights, because the King took the advice of strangers and foolishly tried to rule without heeding the laws. How all this happened is worth knowing.

When Henry grew into manhood he took to wife a foreign lady. Her friends and relations came to England in great numbers, and were raised to high offices and honours. One of her uncles became Archbishop of Canterbury; and another uncle became a man of very high rank, and built for himself a great palace in London, called the Savoy, of which there are still a few remains. The King's court was full of his wife's foreign friends, who cared little for the customs and laws of this country. They used to say, when spoken to about their acts of wrong, "What do the English laws signify to us? We mind them not."

The sayings and doings of these strangers roused the anger of the English barons and people. The clergy also were loud in their complaints, because the King did nothing to

help them against the demands of the Pope, who laid heavy taxes upon them. Throughout the land, therefore, there were loud cries for



LEWES CASTLE.

better rule, and for a strict observance of the laws of the Great Charter.

At length the barons joined together in arms, as their fathers had done in the previous

reign, to make the King do right, and they were helped by most of the bishops. They were headed by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who was a man of great piety, and one of the ablest soldiers of his day. They appeared before the King in council at Westminster, and afterwards at Oxford, and demanded that none but Englishmen should be placed in charge of the royal castles. They also demanded that fifteen of their number should act as advisers to the King in all matters, and thrice a year give an account of their doings to the rest of the barons. Henry agreed to all these demands, and made them known to the country in a document written in French and English, because both these tongues were in use in England. The nobles kept up the French speech, but they were not now ignorant of English. This was the first time since the Norman conquest that the native tongue had been used by the King in any official document. Most likely it was done by the advice of the barons, and thus it shows us that their hearts were drawn closer to their English homes.

SUMMARY.

Henry III. was only ten years old when his

father died. But the barons thought it better to make him King than to accept the French prince who had helped them against John. The young King was crowned at Gloucester, and the French were beaten at the "Fair of Lincoln." Henry married a foreign lady, and gave great offices to her friends. The barons did not like this, and, headed by Simon de Montfort, obtained a charter from the King, promising to give no royal castles to strangers, and to let fifteen of the barons be his advisers. In this charter English was used for the first time in any legal document since the Conquest.

Ral'-ly, to join heartily together
for some common object;
also to rouse others to do
so.

Of-fic'-i-al, belonging to a
rightful authority, for-
mal.

pre'-vi-ous
guard-ed

pal'-ace
sig'-ni-fy

roy'-al
ig'-no-rant



LESSON XIII.

SIMON DE MONTFORT AND THE PEOPLE.

THE rule of England passed for awhile into the hands of the barons, of whom Simon de Montfort was the leader. After a time the baronial party was broken up by petty jealousies. King Henry, having recovered much of his former power, then tried to shake off the control of Earl Simon, and the attempt ended in civil war, because the people of the towns, and of London especially, heartily supported the Earl. The forces of the King and the Earl sighted each other at Lewes, in Sussex. The Earl's men with white crosses on back and breast knelt in prayer on the heights above the town, while the royal army marched to the attack. In the battle that followed, the King's son, Edward, distinguished himself by his bravery, but in the end the Earl's greater skill as a *soldier* won the day. The King was defeated and

taken prisoner. Simon de Montfort then ruled the kingdom in Henry's name, and sought the help of the people in carrying on the government.

About this time the general meeting of the barons and bishops to talk over the affairs of the country began to be called by the new name of Parliament. Earl Simon thought that not only gentry from the counties but men from the towns also ought to attend the baronial meetings to take part in making good laws. A poet of that time had said in one of his songs that "they who are ruled by the laws know those laws best; they who make daily trial of them understand them best; and since it is their own affairs which are at stake, they will take more care, and will act with an eye to their own peace." So the Earl, influenced by such thoughts as these, called to his Parliaments two men from each shire, and two from each city and borough; and thus for the first time since the Norman Conquest the common people recovered a share in the government.

But this act of De Montfort was not pleasing to some of the great nobles. They joined the King's party, and plotted to ruin the Earl. Prince Edward by means of a clever trick escaped from his guards. One day, when out

for riding exercise, he managed to set the guards racing with each other. When their horses were thoroughly tired, the Prince galloped off and joined his friends. Placing himself at their head, he suddenly attacked Earl Simon, who was with a small army at Evesham, in Worcestershire. "Let us commend our souls to God, for our bodies are the foe's," said the Earl, when he saw the advancing force of the Prince. "They come on in wise fashion," said he, as he saw their orderly march, "but it was from me that they learnt it." In the battle of Evesham the royalists were victorious, De Montfort was killed, and the civil war brought to an end.

Earl Simon's name lived in the hearts of the people for many years. They spoke of him as one who had shed his blood for the cause of English freedom. They visited his tomb as that of a saint, and sang hymns in his honour. The following is a verse of a song written soon after the battle of Evesham :—

"That I should sing, my heart commands, in language sad and drear,
And make this song, with weeping eyes, of our brave barons dear,
Who for the peace made long ago went down unto the grave,
Their bodies torn and mangled sore, our English land to save.
Now here lies low the flower of price, who knew so much of war,
The Earl Montfort, whose cruel death the land shall much
deplore.' "

Earl Simon's work did not perish with him. The remainder of Henry's reign was passed in peace ; and, although the common people were not called to the great councils, the country was ruled much better than in the earlier part of the reign.

DATES.

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Battle of Lewes | 1264 A.D. |
| People from the shires and towns called to Simon de Montfort's councils | 1265 „ |
| Battle of Evesham | 1265 „ |

SUMMARY.

After Henry III. had granted his charter, Simon de Montfort became for a time the real ruler of the country. The King fought against him but was beaten at the battle of Lewes. The most noteworthy thing Earl Simon did was to invite the towns to send men to meet with the barons and take part in making laws. This was the beginning of the House of Commons. After all his good services, Earl Simon was killed at the battle of Evesham, fighting against the King's son, Edward.

Par'-li-a-ment, an assembly for speaking, a name given to the meeting of King, Lords, and Commons, for making laws.

Bor'-ough, a town in which the townsmen have a little government of their own.

Cit'-y, a borough which is the seat of a bishop.

con-trol'
af-fairs'
bar-on'-i-al

con'-quest
re-cov'-er
gen'-er-al

tho'-rough-ly
gal'-lop-ed
fol'-low-ing



EDWARD I.

LESSON XIV.

EDWARD I. AND WALES (1272 A.D.—1307 A.D.)

EDWARD I., the eldest son of Henry III., was the first King since the Norman Conquest who bore an English name. This fact is another proof of the growth of English feeling

among the ruling classes. Edward I. was also the first King of England who dated his reign from the burial-day of the previous ruler. Up to this time the reign always began on the crowning-day ; but now the right of the heir to fill the throne had become a settled thing, and thus, though Edward was far away in the east, busy in the Crusades, the barons and bishops swore to be true to him as their lawful King. The great council of the nation, however, never gave up the right of choosing a King if it thought fit to do so, and later on in our history we shall find that this right was put into force more than once.

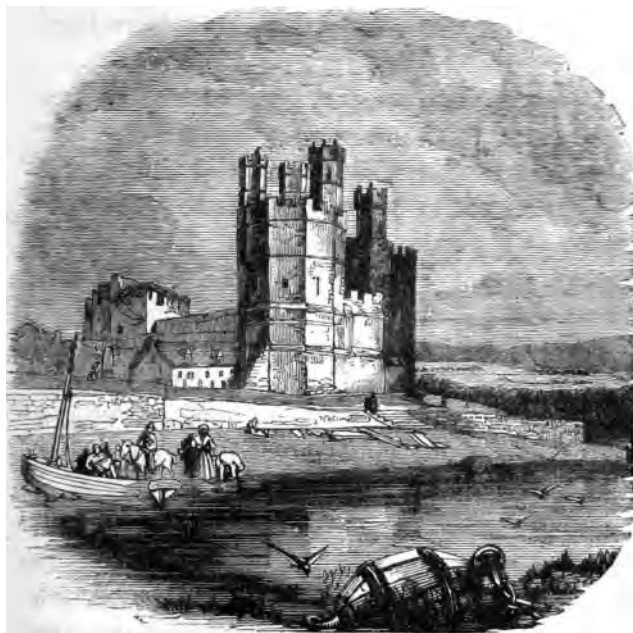
Edward, when a prince, had learnt many things from the famous Earl of Leicester, Simon de Montfort. He was taught by the great Earl lessons in warfare, and, what was far more useful, how to rule wisely and justly. So it came to pass that Edward I. proved himself to be the greatest King of the Plantagenet line. Under him England became prosperous, and the freemen of town and country were allowed to join the national council and have a voice in settling the affairs of government.

Edward tried to bring all the British islands under the rule of one sovereign, as they are in

our own day. Ireland, as we read in the Fifth Lesson, was already in the power of England, but Scotland and Wales were under their own rulers. The attempt to conquer Scotland failed, but Wales was obliged to yield to England's greater power.

In our First Lesson we read that the Welsh were the descendants of the ancient Britons, who found a place of safety from the Saxon swords in the western highlands. There, among their mountains and forests, they were able to keep their language, laws, and freedom, though Kings of England tried many a time to conquer them. When Edward I. came to the throne the greatest prince in Wales was Llewellyn, Lord of Snowdon, who had lately received the higher title of Prince of Wales. The Welsh prince had been a great friend of Simon de Montfort, and had promised to marry his daughter. But Edward would not allow the marriage to take place unless Llewellyn agreed to receive him as his over-king. On the refusal of the Welsh prince to do this Edward marched an army into Wales and shut up Llewellyn among the Snowdon mountains. Then Llewellyn yielded, and received Earl Simon's *daughter in marriage*.

But the Welsh after a while were ashamed to look upon their chief as an under-prince. Their spirit was stirred by their bards, or song-



CARNARVON CASTLE

men, who sang to the music of the harp the glorious deeds of Welsh heroes, and said the time had come when a Prince of Wales should reign in London. Thus moved they rushed to

arms and seized the border castles. Edward marched into Wales with all the strength of England (A.D. 1282). The Welsh made a brave defence, and had it not been for Edward's spirit and courage his army would have been driven out of the country.

About the end of the year Llewellyn was killed in a petty fight on the banks of the river Wye. His head was cut off and sent to Edward, who ordered it to be crowned with willow and placed on the Tower of London. The death of the Welsh prince soon put an end to the war, and Wales fell under the rule of England.

Edward caused several strong castles to be built in North Wales. He divided the country into shires after the English fashion, and placed them under English law. Thus all South Britain came under the power of the King of England. Just about this time Edward's wife gave birth to a boy in Wales. Thinking to please the Welsh, Edward made his infant son Prince of Wales. From that day to this the title of Prince of Wales has always been given to the eldest son of the English sovereign.

DATE.

Conquest of Wales 1282 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Edward I. was away on a crusade when his father died, in 1272; but the barons promised at once to obey him. Yet they did not give up their right to have a king of their own choice. Edward tried to unite all the British Isles in one kingdom. He conquered Wales, divided it into counties, and set up castles. His infant son was made Prince of Wales, and since that time the same title has always been given to the eldest son of the sovereign.

Bards, singers of great deeds.
Coun'-cil, a meeting for taking
 advice together. (Note

the difference of *counsel*,
 advice).

pros'-per-ous
 na'-tion-al
 sov'-er-eign

for'-ests
 lan'-guage
 re-ceived'

re-fus'-al
 mar'-ri'-age
 ti'-tle



LESSON XV.

EDWARD I. AND SCOTLAND.

FOUR years after the conquest of Wales Edward's attention was drawn to the affairs of Scotland. On the death of the King of that country the Scottish chiefs agreed to receive his granddaughter, Margaret, as their Queen. The princess was a child of three years, and is known in history as the "Maid of Norway," because she was the daughter of the ruler of that country. King Edward had formed a plan to marry his little son Edward, first Prince of Wales, to the young princess, in the hope that such a marriage might bring about the union of England and Scotland. But little Margaret died on her voyage from Norway to Scotland. Thus Edward's marriage scheme came to an end, and the crown of Scotland was left a matter of dispute among *several* Scotch lords. Out of these candidates

John Balliol and Robert Bruce were thought to have the best claims.

As Scotland was in danger of civil war, the great council of that country agreed to ask King Edward to settle the dispute. He gladly accepted the task, because it gave him the chance of meddling with Scottish affairs. When the chiefs of the Scottish nation came before him to talk over the rival claims, they were much surprised to hear him demand to be looked upon as the over-lord of Scotland. As they were in his power and unable to oppose him, they granted his claim. It is right to say that in earlier times the Kings of Scotland acknowledged the over-lordship of the Kings of England. Edward, therefore, did not ask for something unheard of before. He decided the dispute in favour of Balliol, who, after promising to be true to Edward as over-lord, was placed upon the Scottish throne.

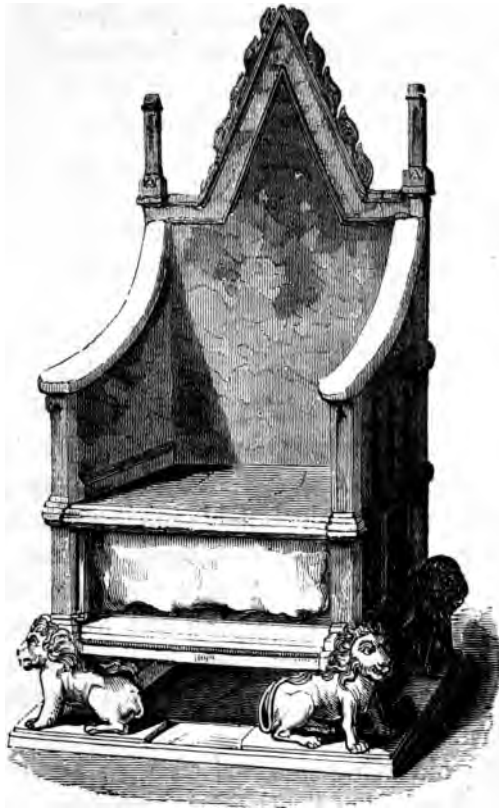
Balliol soon felt how unpleasant it was to reign as an under-king. His subjects, when they thought themselves wrongly treated, took their complaints to the English King, who then summoned Balliol before his council. No prince of any spirit would put up with such treatment, and so we are not surprised to hear that

Balliol refused to hold himself as an under-king, and rose up in arms to defend his royal rights.

The Scottish revolt gave Edward the excuse he wanted in order to do in Scotland as he had done in Wales. He defeated the Scots in battle, and took possession of all their castles. Balliol was kept a prisoner for two years in the Tower of London, and then allowed to withdraw to Normandy. The Government of Scotland was placed in the hands of one of the chief English barons. The crown and other signs of royalty were brought to London, and the old stone, upon which from the earliest times the Scottish Kings had been crowned, was also carried away. The Scots believed that this old stone was the one upon which Jacob laid his head at Bethel, as we read in the first book of the Bible, and they held it in great regard. It is now to be seen in the chair in which the sovereigns of England are crowned in Westminster Abbey.

Edward's conquest of Scotland lasted but a very short time. The Scottish people were more practised in war than the Welsh, and would not give up their freedom, although they were beaten in a few battles. Under Sir

William Wallace they defeated the English



CORONATION CHAIR WITH THE STONE OF SCONE BENEATH.

Governor near Stirling, and forced him to withdraw south of the Tweed. Edward, full

of rage, marched into Scotland, and meeting Wallace near Falkirk, put his army to flight after great slaughter. The Scottish chief then withdrew to the woods, where for several years he made war upon the English forces. At last he was betrayed into Edward's hands, and put to death as a traitor. The memory of Wallace lived long in the heart of the Scottish people, who never tired to hear the story of his many brave deeds.

In the year after Wallace's death the Scots were again up in arms under Robert Bruce, the grandson of John Balliol's rival. The news of the rising made King Edward furious. The English King was now far advanced in age, and very feeble, but his spirit was as strong as ever. He vowed vengeance against Scotland, and commanded that, if death should prevent him from carrying out his vow, the prince his son should keep his body unburied until the spirit of the Scots was thoroughly broken.

The old King was carried in a horse-litter to the borders of Scotland, where death put an end to his attempt at vengeance. His son at once stopped the march of the English army, and returned to London to be crowned. The

Scots went on fighting with the English, who held most of the castles of the country, and, after years of struggling, won back their freedom in the reign of the first Edward's son.

DATES.

| | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|------|-------|
| John Balliol made King of Scotland | . | . | 1292 | A. D. |
| Edward I. dethroned Balliol | . | . | 1296 | " |
| Battles of Stirling and Falkirk | . | . | 1297 | " |
| Death of Wallace | . | . | 1305 | " |

SUMMARY.

The Queen of Scotland was only three years old, and Edward wished to marry the Prince of Wales to her. But the "Maid of Norway," as she was called, died on her voyage to Scotland. Then Edward claimed the right of an over-lord to decide whether John Balliol or Robert Bruce should be King of Scotland. He decided for Balliol, but not finding him submissive, Edward marched into Scotland and captured him. Then Sir William Wallace fought for Scotland. But Edward took him also prisoner and put him to death. Another Robert Bruce then arose, and Edward advanced against him, but died on the borders of Scotland.

Can'-di-date, one who seeks some honour or office.

at-ten'-tion
prin-cess
his'-tor-y

dis-pute'
sum'-mon-ed
re-volt'

roy'-al-ty
gov'-ern-or
ven'-ge-ance



AN ANCIENT PARLIAMENT.*

LESSON XVI.

EDWARD I., AND THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENT.

WE read in the Fourteenth Lesson that Edward I. has been called the greatest of the Plantagenet line of Kings. How great he was in war we have already seen; but he was far more famous for the just and wise way in which

* In this picture, taken from an old document, the King is seen on his throne with the great officers about him. The Churchmen are on either side, and the barons near the bar. No Commons appear to be present.

he ruled this country. Like Henry II. he was careful to see that the laws were rightly kept, so that the common people might be fairly dealt with. The courts of law were placed in better order, and the judges were more carefully appointed.

But Edward's reign is famous for the real beginning of our Parliament, that is to say, the meeting of the sovereign, nobles, bishops, and chosen men from the counties and towns to make laws and levy taxes. In old English times, before the Norman Conquest, the free-men had the right of attending the national council, called the Witenagemót, or the meeting of the wise men, where all the great business of Government was done. But when the Normans became masters of the country, the old national council was much changed. The new King called together the bishops and great barons, whenever he wished to ask advice upon any matter; but oftentimes he decided what to do without asking their opinion. The Norman Kings of England, therefore, did pretty much what they pleased. But when their doings pressed hard upon the rights of the barons, then the barons claimed to have a voice in the royal council, as the great men

did in old English days. Thus it came to pass that no law touching their affairs could be made by the King without their consent.

Now, up to the reign of Edward I., the lesser gentry and townspeople, who were known as the Commons, had no part in the great council gathered about the King. Simon de Montfort, when he was at the head of the Government in the last reign, thought that the Commons ought to have a voice in the business of the nation, and he called them together for that purpose. But many years passed away before his pupil Edward I. thought fit to follow his example.

The admission of the Commons to the Great Council wrought a very great change in the government of our country. It came to pass in this way. Edward's wars for the conquest of Wales and Scotland, and also a war with France, cost a great deal of money, as wars always do. He could easily call the barons and bishops together, and ask them for supplies of money; and this he was obliged to do. But the only way he had of getting money from the people was by sending men to the counties and towns to see what amounts they could pay. This plan took a long time to

carry out; so he found it better to direct the people of those places to send to him chosen men to settle the amount of money payments. At length he decided to call the chosen men of the Commons at the same time that he summoned the great lords and bishops, and to meet them all in one assembly. The shires were to send to the Council as representatives two of the lesser gentry, who were called knights of the shire; and each city and borough was also to send two townsmen. The Parliament thus formed became the model for all our Parliaments from that day to this. It was much like the setting up again of the old English Witenagemót; and it is interesting to notice that the first king to bear an English name after the Norman Conquest was the king who gave back to England an assembly something like the old National Council.

At first the great barons and the Commons met in the same hall; but in the reign of Edward's grandson they met in separate chambers, which came to be called the two Houses of Parliament, that is to say, the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

DATE.

The first model Parliament 1295 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Edward I. improved the courts of law and was careful that the people might have justice readily. In his reign Parliament, as we know it, began to meet. Before the Conquest the English people had their Great Council where all freemen might attend. But the Norman kings consulted only the barons and bishops. The idea of calling in the common people was Simon de Montfort's, but Edward first made it a regular custom. At first the barons and Commons met together in one chamber, but afterwards they were divided into the House of Lords and the House of Commons. —

Lev'-y, to raise, a word applied to rates and taxes.

Re-pre-sent'-at-ive, one who appears for another. A

member of the House of Commons has this name because he appears for those who send him.

ap-point'-ed
o-pin'-i-on
pret'-ty

gent'-ry
ex-am'-ple
ad-mis'-sion

ob-lig'-ed
as-sem-bly
mod'-el





STIRLING CASTLE.

LESSON XVII.

EDWARD II. (1307 A.D.—1327 A.D.) AND BANNOCKBURN.

EDWARD II. was a young man at the time of his father's death. In the Fifteenth Lesson we read how he hurried to London from the borders of Scotland, instead of obeying his father's dying

wish that he should punish the Scots for their rebellion. This conduct on the part of young Edward is an example of the way he ruled this country during his reign of twenty years. He cared little for the greatness of England. He loved rather to spend his time in hunting, hawking, and other games, and looking after horses and dogs. For these pleasures he neglected the duties of ruling, and allowed favourites to direct the business of Government as they thought fit. He does not seem to have learnt a single lesson from his father's good example. His reign, therefore, turned out a most unhappy one for himself and the country.

The barons in Parliament demanded that Edward should be guided by their counsels, and send away from the country his French favourite, Piers Gaveston. He agreed to this demand at first, but after a short time he called him back again. A strong party of the barons then seized Gaveston and cut off his head, thus getting rid in rough fashion of one whom they called an enemy to England.

While the King and his nobles were quarrelling in this way, Robert Bruce was fighting in Scotland for his country's freedom with much success. All the castles except Stirling

fell into his hands. This strong place was in danger of being taken, when Edward marched with a great army into Scotland to save it. Bruce could not muster half the same number of men as the English King, but he made up for weakness in numbers by courage and cunning.

He drew up his men near Stirling, by the side of a stream called Bannockburn. As he knew the English to be strong in horsemen, he caused all the ground in his front to be dug full of holes about knee-deep. Turf was then laid upon the top of these pits, so that the ground seemed like a plain field.

It was in the evening of a summer's day in the month of June that the English army came in sight of the Scots. Some of the English knights rode forward to see what the enemy was doing. They saw Bruce, dressed in armour, and wearing a golden crown above his helmet, riding in front of his men. He was not mounted on a war horse, but on a little pony, because he did not expect any fighting that evening. His only weapon was a battle-axe of steel.

One of the English knights, seeing Bruce so poorly mounted and armed, thought he might

win a great name and put an end to the war if he killed him, so putting spurs into his horse he galloped at full speed towards the Scottish chief, thinking by the use of his long spear and the rush of his war horse to unseat the rider or upset the pony. But Bruce, quietly awaiting his attack, allowed him to draw near, and then suddenly turning his pony on one side cleverly escaped the point of the lance. Just as the Englishman, having missed his aim, was rushing past, Bruce rose in his stirrups, and with his battle-axe smashed his foe's iron helmet as if it had been a nut. This fearful blow hurled the knight dead to the ground.

At daybreak next morning both sides prepared for battle. The Scots, knowing that their liberty hung upon the fight, knelt down and earnestly prayed for God's help in the struggle. King Edward saw them and cried out, "They kneel down, they are asking for mercy and forgiveness." "Yes, they do," answered one of his knights, "but they ask it from God, and not from us. Trust me, yon men will win the day or die upon the field." And the Englishman was right. Edward's horsemen rushed to the attack, but the pits in

the ground upset horses and riders, and threw the English army into disorder. The Scots dashed in among the struggling mass, and, fighting bravely, put the English to flight after



BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN.

a great loss. Thus the victory of Bannockburn saved Scotland from sharing the fate of Wales.

King Edward was blamed by the English

for his Scottish failure. He again put himself into the hands of favourites, and thus roused the nobles to oppose him, as they had done earlier in the reign. Even his wife joined the ranks of his enemies. At last the Parliament agreed that he was not fit to govern the country, and forced him to give up the crown to his son Edward, a boy fourteen years old. Then the unhappy King was taken from castle to castle, and after a while was cruelly murdered.

DATE.

Battle of Bannockburn 1314 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Edward II. had a very unfortunate reign. He selected unworthy friends, and so fell into strife with the barons. He was fatally defeated at Bannockburn by the Scotch under Robert Bruce. After twenty years of misrule Edward was set aside and then murdered.

pleas'-ure
neg-lect'-ed
coun'-sels

fa'-vour-ite
quar'-rel-ling
suc-cess'

cun'-ning
po'-ny
hel'-met



LESSON XVIII.

EDWARD III. (1327 A.D.—1377 A.D.) AND THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

THE reign of this king is an important one in our history. Under his rule a war began with France which lasted so long that it has been called the Hundred Years' War. This war brought great glory to England at first, because Edward's men were victorious in famous battles on land and sea, and were thought the bravest soldiers in the world. In the end, however, England lost nearly all that it had so gloriously won in France.

But the Hundred Years' War brought about many changes in our own country. It placed the King in debt, and caused him to apply to Parliament for money. As he was often obliged to do this, the Parliament, and especially the Commons, grew bold, and claimed more power in the Great Council. The war also made the King and his nobles more English than the kings and barons before them had ever been. Since the Norman Conquest

they had always kept up the French language, and even the trials in the law courts were carried on in French. But when Frenchmen were beaten in battle after battle by English arms, Edward III. and his nobles learnt to despise the tongue of Frenchmen and to love more dearly their own country's speech. So French was driven out of the schools and law courts, and English was studied and used in its place. This was indeed a great change in the life of our country ; and there were other changes as great, which we cannot tell of now.

The Hundred Years' War was brought about in this way. King Edward's mother was the sister of the King of France, who died without leaving any male children. Edward, therefore, laid claim to the French Crown in the right of his mother. But the nobles of France refused to yield to his claim, because, according to their law, a woman could neither reign nor hand down the right to her son ; and so they accepted one of their own princes as king. Edward at first seemed willing to agree with the choice of the French people ; but when they aided the Scots against England he put forward his claim again, and took up arms to *maintain it*.

In the first years of the war Edward had little success, because he trusted in foreign princes and foreign soldiers, whom he hired to fight his battles. At last he placed his hopes of success in his own people alone, and, sailing from Southampton, invaded Normandy at the head of an army of English, Welsh, and Irish, numbering in all thirty thousand men. He advanced within a few miles of Paris, the chief town of France, when the approach of a very strong French force obliged him to turn aside towards the north. Closely pursued by the French King, Edward made a stand at a village called Crecy, which belonged to his mother, and there he determined to offer battle to his pursuers.

SUMMARY.

The third Edward laid claim to the crown of France because his mother would have been queen if the French had allowed a woman to reign. This began the "Hundred Years' War." The expenses of war compelled the King to make much use of Parliament and so to increase its power. The war also helped the growth of our English speech, and made it, instead of French, the language of the schools and law-courts.

es-pec'-i-al-ly
vic-to'-ri-ous

mon'-ey
debt

des-pise'
driv-en

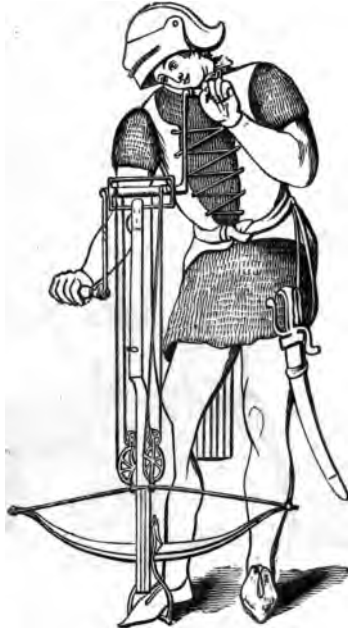
LESSON XIX.

CRECY.

KING EDWARD placed the front division of his army under the command of his eldest son, the Prince of Wales, who was then a boy sixteen years old. The English were all drawn up to fight on foot, and the archers, who were famous for their skill as marksmen, were put in the front line. They had also a few war machines, which were now to be used for the first time on a battle-field. These were some small cannon. The way to make gunpowder became known a few years before this, but its great power as an engine of warfare was not found out for a long time to come. The few cannon used at Crecy served more to frighten with their noise the horses of the enemy than do much hurt.

The French army, in number about four times as many as the English, foolishly began

the battle after a long day's march. In their front were some thousands of Genoese bowmen, whom the French King had hired on account of



CROSS-BOW MAN.

their skill. These men belonged to Genoa, in Italy, and were famous for the use of the cross-bow. English archers, on the other hand, used long bows made of yew, which were much easier

to handle than the Italian weapons. The Genoese were told to begin the fight, but they said they were tired with the long march, and that the strings of their bows were limp from



ARCHERS.

the rain which had fallen. Forward, however, they had to go. Then the English archers drew from their cases their bows, dry and tight, and sent a flight of arrows thick as snow. The Genoese, unable to face such a storm,

turned, and in their retreat blocked up the way of their own horsemen. The French King in a passion shouted to his knights, "Kill me those rascals who block our way;" and the unhappy Italians were cut down and trampled under foot by their own friends.

The battle thus begun ended in the rout of the French, who were only saved from utter ruin by the approach of night. As it was, the country about Crecy was covered with the dead bodies of Frenchmen. The young Prince of Wales won great glory that day. His name soon became a terror to the French, by whom he was known as the Black Prince, either from the colour of his armour or from the misery he brought upon France. From the day of the battle of Crecy he chose for his crest three ostrich feathers, with the motto in German, *Ich dien* (I serve), which is said to have belonged to a blind king who fought and died in the French ranks. Every Prince of Wales since that time has taken this crest and motto.

After the battle of Crecy King Edward laid siege to the town of Calais, and took it. This town remained in the hands of the English for two hundred years, and was useful as a

place of trade and a point from which to attack France.

DATES.

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----------|
| Battle of Crecy | 1346 A.D. |
| Capture of Calais | 1347 „ |

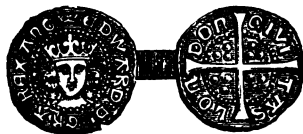
SUMMARY.

At Crecy, in 1346, Edward III. obtained a wonderful victory over the French. Here cannon were first used in battle. The young Prince of Wales, afterwards called the Black Prince, won great praise in this fight, and from that time all Princes of Wales have had three ostrich feathers for a crest.

com'-mand
arch'-ers
ma-chines'

can'-non
en'-gine
re-treat'

ras'-cals
os'-trich
feath'-er



PENNY OF EDWARD III.

LESSON XX.

HOW EDWARD III. WON THE TITLE OF "KING
OF THE SEA."

SOON after the loss of Calais the King of France obtained the help of Spain for the purpose of destroying the English navy and of invading England. The Spaniards collected a great force of men and ships in a harbour a few miles to the north of Calais, and only a few hours' sail from the river Thames. They had forty great ships provided with all kinds of war engines. On their masts were castles stored with great bars of iron and huge stones to throw down upon the decks of the enemy's ships, and so sink them.

King Edward made all preparations to meet the threatened invasion. He directed the Archbishop of Canterbury to order prayers to be made in the churches throughout the kingdom for his success, and commanded the sea-

ports to send as many ships as possible to the coast of Kent. Off Sandwich, which was then a thriving port, the English ships lay at anchor, when the King, the Black Prince, and hundreds of nobles and knights, who had fought at Crecy, came down to join the fleet. In those days fighting was done at sea by landsmen as well as by sailors ; and it was not uncommon to find the same man acting at one time as a general on land, and at another time as an admiral at sea. So eager were the English to take part in the expected battle, that even the Black Prince's younger brother, John of Ghent, then only a boy ten years of age, joined the fleet.

King Edward went on board his own favourite ship called the *Cog Thomas*. He himself took the office of admiral, and gave orders as to the plan of fighting. Then he waited for the Spaniards to make their appearance. He was in nowise cast down at the prospect of an encounter between his small vessels and the great ships of his enemy. He had brought his minstrels on board, so that the hours of waiting were enlivened by their music, and the songs of some of his attendants. From time to time he looked up to the top of

the mast, where a man had been placed on the look-out for the Spaniards. It was a Sunday afternoon in the month of August, in the year 1350. About four o'clock the look-out man shouted, "Ho! I see a ship coming, and it looks like a Spaniard." At the cry the minstrels ceased their music, and the man was asked whether he saw any more. "I see two, three, four:" and shortly after he cried, "God help me! I see so many I cannot count them." Then the King ordered the trumpets to sound, gave the signal to weigh anchor, and prepared for battle. The Spaniards drew near with the wind in their favour. One of their large ships struck the *Cog Thomas* so violently that the mast of the royal vessel was carried away and all the men in the top drowned. The King's ship was now in danger of sinking from a leak, but the English knights, singling out another great Spaniard, fastened their vessel to her with grappling irons, and boarded her. They threw every one of the enemy overboard, and then manning the captured ship with the men of their own sinking vessel, sailed again into the thick of the fight.

In the same fashion the Prince of Wales fought his own vessel. He also had grappled

with a large Spaniard, but his own ship was so shattered by the missiles of the enemy that it was on the point of sinking, when help came and enabled him to board the foe. The Spaniards found no mercy; every soul was thrown into the sea.

The deed of daring of one common man deserves to be told. One of the Spanish ships was sailing away with a smaller English vessel fastened to her, when one of the crew, named Hannekin, leaped on board the Spaniard and cut away the halyards of the sail, which then fell down on the deck. He also cut down the chief ropes that supported the mast, and thus stopped the vessel's progress. In the confusion that followed, the English boarded the Spaniard and took her.

The Spaniards sailed away, having lost about half their fleet, while King Edward returned to the Kentish coast the same evening. Never before or after in English history was there a sea-fight like this, in which the King himself, the Prince of Wales, and the chief nobility of the land were all engaged. After such a victory no wonder the people hailed Edward III. "King of the Sea."

As the English fought at Crecy, so they

fought in most of the battles of this reign. At Poitiers, in the heart of France, the Black Prince won a victory as great as that of Crecy, and took the French King prisoner. Soon afterwards the French people offered King Edward all the south-western part of France, which had once belonged to Henry II., the town of Calais, and a large sum of money, if he would give up his claim to the French crown. This offer was accepted. But the war in a while broke out again, and as King Edward was then getting old, and the Black Prince was suffering from a deadly illness, the French won back all their provinces, except the towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

DATES.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| Battle of Poitiers | 1356 A.D. |
| Death of the Black Prince | 1376 „ |
| „ Edward III. | 1377 „ |

SUMMARY.

The French asked the Spaniards to help them with ships against Edward III. The English won a great victory, and Edward III. was called the King of the Sea. The Black Prince captured the French King at Poitiers. The French then gave King Edward all the south-western part of their country. But when Edward was old and his son was ill, the French recovered nearly all they had lost.

LESSON XXI.

ATTEMPT AT REFORM: "THE GOOD PARLIAMENT."

WHILE the war with France was going on in the reign of Edward III. a great stir was made in England about the affairs of the English Church. The clergy as a body had become very careless in the discharge of their duties; and ignorance and sin were wide-spread. The people in those days were unable to read, so that they depended for religious teaching upon their parish priests. If, then, the teachers were careless and idle, the people could not learn the lessons of holy living which Christian ministers were sent to teach.

Much of the carelessness of the clergy was owing to the way in which they were treated by the Pope. We read in the Tenth Lesson how the Pope as the Bishop of Rome, which was once the chief city in the known world, was regarded as the chief bishop in Western

Europe, and how he claimed to have power over the Church in this country. On account of this claim he from time to time laid upon our clergy heavy taxes, which they were scarcely able to pay. He also gave many of the best church livings in England to his foreign friends and other strangers who could afford to buy his favour. But these foreigners were not obliged to come to England to do any work, and few, if any of them, ever visited our shores. They paid some poor parson a small sum to discharge the religious duties for which they received large amounts.

In the reign of Edward III. the Pope happened to be a Frenchman, and was living at Avignon, a town on the south-eastern borders of France. As a Frenchman the Pope sided with the King of France in his great war with England. This conduct of the Pope made King Edward and his people very angry, and they resolved to do something to lessen the Papal power in this country. So Parliament made some laws to stop the Pope from meddling, as he had done, with the affairs of the English Church and the law of the land.

One of these laws made it a great crime to bring any letter or decree of the Pope into

England without the permission of the King being first obtained. As this law is very often mentioned in histories of our country, it is well to remember its name. It is called *Præmunire*, from the first word of the Latin in which, like all laws of the time, it was written.

Another law made at that time denied the right of the Pope to appoint any one to a living or to any other office of profit in the Church of England.

In those times, however, it was very difficult to get these laws obeyed, and at the very end of the reign of Edward III. another Parliament complained that the abuses still went on. This Parliament, which met in 1376, tried to improve the Government of the King, as well as to lessen the power of the Bishop of Rome. The House of Commons condemned unjust taxes and the waste of public money. They insisted that there should be a meeting of Parliament once every year, and that the people should be free to send there the members they liked best, instead of being compelled to send men chosen by the King. They also accused two powerful servants of the Crown for their harsh conduct *to the poor*. And because they tried to bring

about so many improvements they were called ever after "the Good Parliament."

SUMMARY.

In the middle of the fourteenth century the Church had fallen very low. The clergy were idle, and many strangers were brought in who could not speak English. Laws were passed to lessen the Pope's power in England. The Parliament of 1376 was called the Good Parliament, because it lessened the burdens of the people, and maintained that they should have freedom to choose the members they liked best.

Præmunire, the name of a law passed in the reign of Edward III. forbidding any one to bring into

England letters or decrees of the Pope without royal permission.

priests
idle
mo'-ney

re-lig'-i-ous
his'-tor-ies
peo'-ple

med'-dling
oon-demn'-ed
for'-eign-er





JOHN WYCLIFF.

LESSON XXII.

JOHN WYCLIFF, THE FIRST ENGLISH RELIGIOUS
REFORMER.

AMONG the men who wrote and spoke in favour of the Church of England, the foremost was a clergyman named John Wycliff. He was a famous teacher in the great schools of Oxford, and was much liked for his learning and straightforward conduct. After doing *much good work* as a teacher at Oxford, he

was presented by the King to a church living at Lutterworth, in Leicestershire. In his quiet country parish of Lutterworth, brooding over the sad state of the English Church, he became anxious to do something to spread religious knowledge among his ignorant fellow-countrymen. So he gathered about him a number of men whom he taught and trained, and then sent them out into the villages and towns to preach the Gospel of Jesus Christ. Wycliff's poor preachers, or "Simple Priests," as they were sometimes called, wore a long dress of russet-brown. Wherever they went the people flocked to hear their plain-spoken sermons, and so great was their success that a writer of the time says, "that a man could not meet two persons on the road but one was a follower of Wycliff."

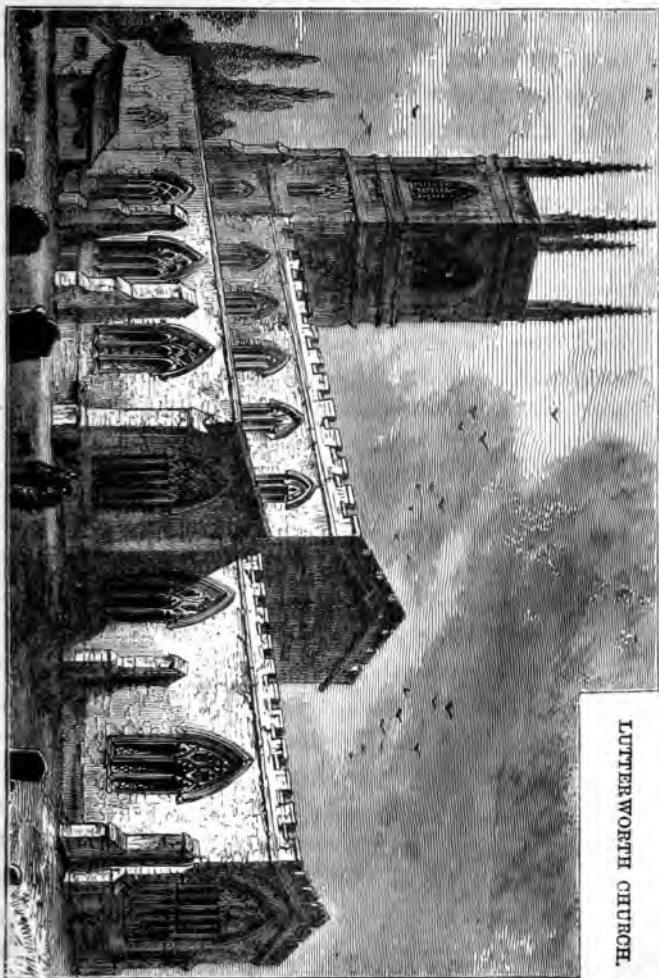
But Wycliff did more than send out a body of poor preachers. He wrote in the simple tongue of the common people a number of tracts, for the purpose, as he said, "of teaching simple men and women the way to heaven." And, better than all, he translated the Bible into English, so that those who could read might learn for themselves in their native tongue the teaching of that holy book. Before

this time the Bible had never been written in English. Certain parts of it, as the Psalms, had been translated into our speech, but the remainder could only be read by those who knew Latin, for in that language the Scriptures were known to our clergy in those days.

Wycliff's attempts to improve the state of religion won for him the proud name of the first English religious reformer. His followers were called by the nickname of Lollards, and this is the name by which they are best known in our history. His efforts to do good brought down upon his head the ill-will of the Pope and the English bishops; but his friends were so strong that he was allowed to die in peace in his country parsonage. Years afterwards, when the Pope got back his influence in England, the reformer's body was dug up from its grave in the churchyard. It was then burnt, and its ashes flung into the little river which runs by Lutterworth.

When this insult was done to the memory of Wycliff, his followers were treated with great cruelty. A law had been made by which Lollards were to be punished with death by burning. In this way the power of the Lollards was broken. Men and women were obliged to

LUTTERWORTH CHURCH.



meet in secret if they wished to hear a Lollard preacher read a tract of Wycliff or a passage from the English Bible. Thus the work of the Oxford reformer went on in spite of cruel laws, until better times came to give it new life and power.

SUMMARY.

John Wycliff lived in the fourteenth century, and was the first great reformer of religion in England. He taught at Oxford and afterwards was the clergyman of Lutterworth in Leicestershire. He first translated the Bible into English. His followers were called Lollards.

Brood'-ing, thinking seriously.

Trans-lat'-ed, turned from one language into another.

rus'-set
know'-ledge

writ-ten
tongue

bish'-op
cru'-el-ty



LESSON XXIII.

RICHARD II. (1377 A.D.—1399 A.D.).

CONDITION OF THE PEASANTRY.

RICHARD II. was the son of Edward the Black Prince. He was a little boy, ten years old, when his grandfather, Edward III., died. His reign in many ways was like that of his great-grandfather, Edward II. He allowed himself to be guided by favourites, and thus caused a strong party among the barons to rise up against him, and in the end he lost his throne as well as his life.

The Hundred Years' War with France began again. French sailors attacked the south coasts of England, and robbed and burnt several towns in those districts. To pay the costs of the war, Parliament laid a tax of three groats* upon every person in the country above the age of fifteen. This was called a poll-

* It would be equal in value to at least five shillings now.

tax, that is to say a head-tax. A groat, or fourpence, then was worth much more than fourpence now. A working man in those times could not earn in a day more than a groat; so that the tax was a heavy one, and unfair to the poor because they had to pay as much as the rich.

This poll-tax brought about amongst the country labourers, or peasantry as they are sometimes called, a rebellion, because they thought the great lords and rich tradesmen were treating them badly. Most of the people of England then lived in the country, and farm labour, such as sowing corn, rearing cattle, and tending sheep, was the chief employment. A rebellion, therefore, among the working classes was a fearful thing. Such an event had never happened in England before, and among the peasantry it has never happened since.

A great number of the country labourers were not freemen. They could not serve any master they pleased, for they were bound to live and work upon the land where they were born. Men and women in this state were called serfs, or bondmen, and villeins. They were not slaves, because they could not be sold

like cattle ; but they were not free to go where they wished, or do what they liked. They were, however, sometimes allowed to buy their freedom ; while many became free by running away to some walled town, where they



WORKMEN OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

stopped a year and a day, and then their masters lost their right over them.

There was a feeling now amongst the serfs that they ought to be free, and several things had happened in the last reign to encourage such a feeling. A great plague, called the Black Death, visited England in the reign of

Edward III., and destroyed half the people. Labourers were so few that they would not work unless they were paid high wages. Workmen were so much wanted, that many serfs ran away to distant places, and the wish to be free was strong in the minds of villeins everywhere. But the parliament, which was made up of rich landowners and well-to-do townsmen, tried to keep the labourers down. It passed a law to stop them from asking higher wages, and also a law which gave to a landlord the right of burning the letter F on the forehead of a runaway serf to show that he had been false. The labouring classes, therefore, felt that the rich were against them. They also saw that if they were to better their lot, they must become strong by joining together, and so be ready to help each other when need should arise.

Many of Wycliff's "poor priests" made the complaints of the poor the subject of their sermons. They also wrote tracts and rhymes, in which the popular grievances were plainly told. These travelling preachers also carried news and likewise messages from one part of the land to another. Thus they became a link *of connection* between different villages and

districts, and enabled the people to act together in great numbers, when the patience of the peasantry could endure no longer.

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Richard II. the labourers and workmen suffered very much. Their wages were low and they had to pay heavy taxes. The peasants were not free to go where they liked, but were bound to the estate on which they were born. They now became discontented, and ran away to the towns to join with the workmen there. In the time of Richard's grandfather a great plague called the Black Death carried off thousands of people; thus labour had become scarce, and the workmen thought they ought to have more money.

Vil-lein, a peasant bound to an estate. It came to be used as a word of con-

tempt and reproach; hence "villain."

Serf, another word for villain or bondman.

fa'vour-ites
re-bel'-li-on

dis'-tricts
en-cour'-age

peas'-ant-ry
griev'-ance



LESSON XXIV.

REVOLT OF THE PEASANTRY.

THE feeling of the peasantry being already one of anger and discontent, described in the preceding Lesson, the poll-tax roused them to violence. On every village green, and in the country churchyards, groups of rustics were often seen talking together about their grievances, and murmurings against the rich were loud and deep. The conduct of a tax-gatherer in the house of Walter, a tiler, commonly called Wat Tyler, in Kent, drove the people into open rebellion. The man, having insulted Wat Tyler's daughter, was struck dead by the father. The bystanders praised the deed, and at once took up arms to defend Tyler, and fight for liberty.

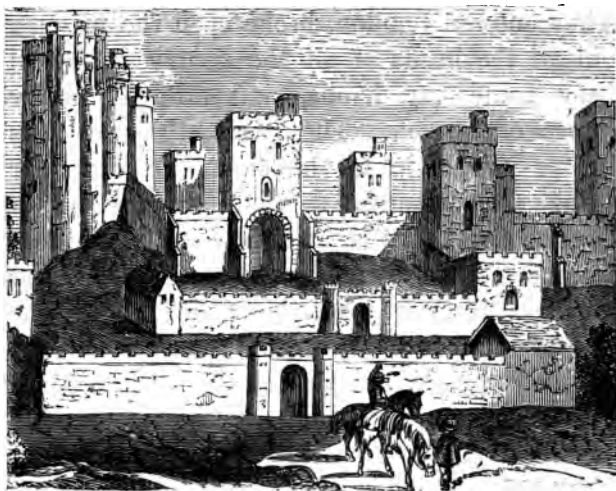
The revolt spread like fire from Kent to the river Humber, and in a short time many *thousands* of the peasantry were marching from

all points to London. It was a rising of the poor against the rich. Their cry was, "Down with the rich!" while the favourite saying of their leaders was contained in the lines—

When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?

They entered London, broke open the prisons, cut off the heads of all the gentry on whom they could lay hands, and pillaged many houses of the rich. They placed their demands before King Richard himself. Among other things they demanded freedom for every serf, or bondman, and the right to buy and sell in any fair or market-town they pleased. The King promised to grant what they asked, though he had no power to do so, because the right to make such changes was in the hands of Parliament. However, a great number of the peasants then returned to their homes. Next day the Kentish men under Wat Tyler met the King to speak of their grievances. During the meeting Wat behaved himself so rudely that the Mayor of London struck him down with a sword, and he was at once killed by the royal attendants. The rioters were about to avenge the death of their leader, when the young King boldly rode up to them, saying, "What is the

meaning of this, my good people? Are ye angry that ye have lost your leader? I am your king. I will be your leader." Thus he calmed the rustics; and with fair promises sent them home. But Parliament would not



PONTEFRACT CASTLE.

agree to carry out the King's words. It decided, instead, to send out judges to punish the rioters, of whom fifteen hundred were put to death.

So ended the revolt of the peasantry. Though the movement seemed to have failed, *it was not so* in reality. The rich began to

see that it was dangerous to oppress the poor, and that it was a bad thing to keep up serfdom. So from that time onwards the cause of the peasantry was more favoured, till at last serfdom in England was swept away altogether.

After the peasant revolt King Richard had much trouble with many of his barons, who complained of his bad rule. At last he managed to put down all opposition, and then began to reign according to his own will, as the Norman kings had done before Magna Carta was signed. This conduct brought about its own punishment; for when the King's cousin, Henry, Duke of Lancaster, rose up against such misrule, the whole nation supported the Duke. A Parliament met, which decided to depose Richard II., and place Henry of Lancaster on the throne. Richard was sent to Pontefract Castle in Yorkshire, where, it is said, he was murdered. In after years a great civil war arose in England, because of the action of the Parliament in making the Duke of Lancaster king; but we shall read about this struggle in another lesson.

DATE.

Peasant revolt under Wat Tyler . . . 1381 A.D.

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Richard II. the peasants rose in rebellion. Their leader was Wat Tyler, a man of Kent; but the revolt extended over all the east of England to the Humber. The rioters entered London, but their leader was killed and they were dispersed. The reign of Richard II. was unfortunate. He was dethroned and afterwards murdered.

 Rus'-tics, country people.

 | Delve, to dig.

 lev'-i-ed
 reign

 in-sult'-ed
 pil'-lag-ed

 op-po-si'-tion
 a-veng'-ed


LESSON XXV.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER, THE FIRST GREAT ENGLISH
POET (1340 A.D.—1400 A.D.).

WE read in the Eighteenth Lesson how the Hundred Years' War caused Edward III. and the barons to allow the use of the English language in the schools and law-courts instead of French, which had been the fashionable tongue ever since the Norman Conquest. When this change was made the English speech was not exactly the same in all parts of the country. The people in the south, the middle, and the north, had their own ways of using certain words and sounds, just as the common people now have in the country parts of England. Different uses of the same tongue in the way just mentioned are called *dialects*. So there were at this time in England three chief dialects, that is to say, the southern, the midland, and the northern dialects. There

was no English in use which was looked upon as the model speech for the whole country. In other words, there was no standard English. If a man wrote a poem or a story in English, he used the dialect of that part of the country to which he belonged.

Now in the reign of Edward III. Englishmen began to write in their mother tongue more than they had ever done, so that standard English was beginning to take shape. The religious reformer, John Wycliff, about whom we read in the Twenty-second Lesson, did much to form model English by his tracts and his translation of the Bible. But the man who really gave to English writers a standard native language was the poet Geoffrey Chaucer.

Chaucer was a native of London. When a youth he took service as a page in the house of one of the sons of Edward III. He afterwards fought in the French wars, and was taken prisoner. On regaining his freedom he returned to the English court, and began to write verses after the fashion of French poetry, because that style was the best known and liked by our great people. In the last years of the reign of Edward III., he went for that king on an important errand to Italy, where

he became acquainted with the works of some famous poets and story-tellers, and he came home with new thoughts of poetry, and wrote pieces after the pattern that he had learnt abroad.

In the reign of Richard II. Chaucer was for a time a member of Parliament. Up to this period his life had been a busy one, and prosperous ; but on the death of his powerful friends at court he became less fortunate. This change in his fortunes gave him more time for study, and then it was that some of his best poems were written. He spent his later years in a house close by Westminster Abbey, and his body was buried in that famous church, where lie the ashes of many of England's noblest dead.

Chaucer's great work is called the "Canterbury Tales."² It is a collection of stories in verse, supposed to have been told by a party of travellers going on pilgrimage from London to the tomb of St. Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. Chaucer wrote in this style because story-telling was then the fashion. He also put his tales together in a way that he knew would please the English people. In his days, a pilgrimage was one of the ways of taking a

holiday, and the favourite pilgrimage for Londoners was the journey to Becket's shrine, for St. Thomas of Canterbury was the most popular of English saints.

Among the thirty pilgrims whom Chaucer sings about there are people of all ranks of life. We find among the number a knight, a monk, a merchant, a carpenter, a weaver, a dyer, a tapestry maker, a cook, a sailor, a ploughman, a miller, a poor town parson, and others. In the tales which these people have to tell, we have pictures of how Englishmen lived in the times of Edward III. and Richard II. So simply does the poet tell each one's character and story, that those who read the "Canterbury Tales" may fancy they see the pilgrim group on horseback riding quietly along, and listening with pleasure to the various tales.

Chaucer's poems would not become so widely known in those days as books of worth do now. Printing was not then known, so books had to be copied by hand. On this account they were rare and dear, and therefore could only get into the hands of rich people. But as Chaucer's poems were the best that had ever been heard in England, many copies

were made in the course of time; and his works became the model for all English writers for two hundred years afterwards. Chaucer then should be remembered not only as being the first great English poet, or as some call him "the father of English poetry," but also as being the one who first gave to our country a standard language for the writing of books.

In the wars that sprang from the crowning of Henry of Lancaster, there was no English writer of any fame, and two hundred years passed away before another poet arose in England to equal Geoffrey Chaucer.

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Edward III. the English language began to be used in the King's courts instead of Norman French. The first great poet who wrote in English was Geoffrey Chaucer. He lived from about 1340 to 1400. His chief work is the "Canterbury Tales." It is a collection of stories supposed to be told by a party of pilgrims on the way to the shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury.

Style, manner, or character,
used especially of an
author's mode of writing.

Di'-a-lect, a form of a language
distinguished by local
words and pronunciation.

fash'-i-on-a-ble
pris'-on-er

ac-quaint'-ed
tra'-vel-lers

tap'-es-try
jour'-ney

LESSON XXVI.

HENRY IV. (1399 A.D.—1413 A.D.).

THE Twenty-fourth Lesson taught us how Richard II. was set aside in favour of his cousin, Henry of Lancaster. The new king took the title of Henry IV., and was the first of the House of Lancaster to sit upon the throne. The crown remained in his family for a period of about sixty years, and then during the reign of his grandson it passed into the hands of the descendants of an elder cousin of Richard II.

Henry IV. was not allowed to reign in peace. There were many plots and risings among the nobles, especially in the north of England, and several battles took place before he was able to establish his power firmly.

The family of the Earl of Northumberland were most bitter in their hostility. The Earl

found a powerful ally in a Welsh chieftain named Owen Glendower, who had been in the service of Richard II. Glendower was a descendant of Llewellyn, the prince who fought so bravely against Edward I., and therefore he could bring into the field a strong Welsh force. So it was agreed that Northumberland and the Welsh should join together in a war against Henry IV., and meet for that purpose in the neighbourhood of Shrewsbury, in Shropshire. Accordingly the Earl sent his son, called Hotspur because of his high temper and speed in action, at the head of an army into Shropshire; but he was attacked by King Henry before he reached Shrewsbury. Glendower could not cross the river Severn to help his ally, and so Hotspur was left to bear all the brunt of the royal attack. The battle was long and fatal, for both sides fought with the greatest bravery. Hotspur's death in the thickest of the fight placed the victory in Henry's hands. The Earl of Northumberland received the royal pardon, but a couple of years afterwards he again rebelled, and was then taken prisoner and put to death. Owen Glendower managed to hold out until the following reign. In the battle of Shrewsbury

the King's son, Henry, Prince of Wales—then only a youth in his teens—greatly distinguished himself, and gave promise of becoming a great soldier. How this promise was fulfilled the next Lesson will show.

The King kept the favour of the House of Commons by allowing it more power in the government of the country. In this way he was enabled to overcome the plots of his many enemies.

He also kept the Church on his side by giving his support to a law which was made to punish the Lollards with death by burning. Thus for the first time in English history people were put to death for their religious opinions. The first to suffer in this way was a London clergyman named John Sawtre. The place of punishment was Smithfield, where in after years many others were burnt for their religion.

The war with France which began in the time of Edward III. still went on between the sailors of both countries. France was then in an unhappy state, because its King was weak in mind, and the nobles were divided into two hostile parties. Henry took advantage of this to gain back some of the south-west

provinces in France, which had been lost in the later years of Edward III.

SUMMARY.

Richard II. was succeeded by Henry IV. of Lancaster, grandson of Edward III., and son to John of Ghent. He was made King by the Parliament. The Duke of Northumberland joined with Owen Glendower, a Welsh prince, to oppose him, but he conquered them. In order to win the favour of Churchmen this King persecuted the Lollards. He won back some provinces in south-west France.

de-scend'-ant
cous'-in

brav'-e-ry
dis-tin'-guish-ed

sold'-i-er
es-pec'-i-al-ly



LESSON XXVII.

HENRY V. (1413 A.D.—1422 A.D.).—ENGLISH
CONQUESTS IN FRANCE.—BATTLE OF AGIN-
COURT.

WHEN Henry V., son of Henry IV., came to the throne, he resolved to imitate his father's dealings with France, and so recover all the English possessions in that country. Such a plan, he thought, would make his family strong in England. Following the example of Edward III., he made a claim to the French crown, and crossed over to Normandy with an army. Sickness having destroyed half his force, he marched with the remaining half towards Calais, which was then in English hands. It was in the course of this march that the battle of Agincourt took place, which was one of the most famous victories ever won by Englishmen.

When Henry had passed a few miles beyond

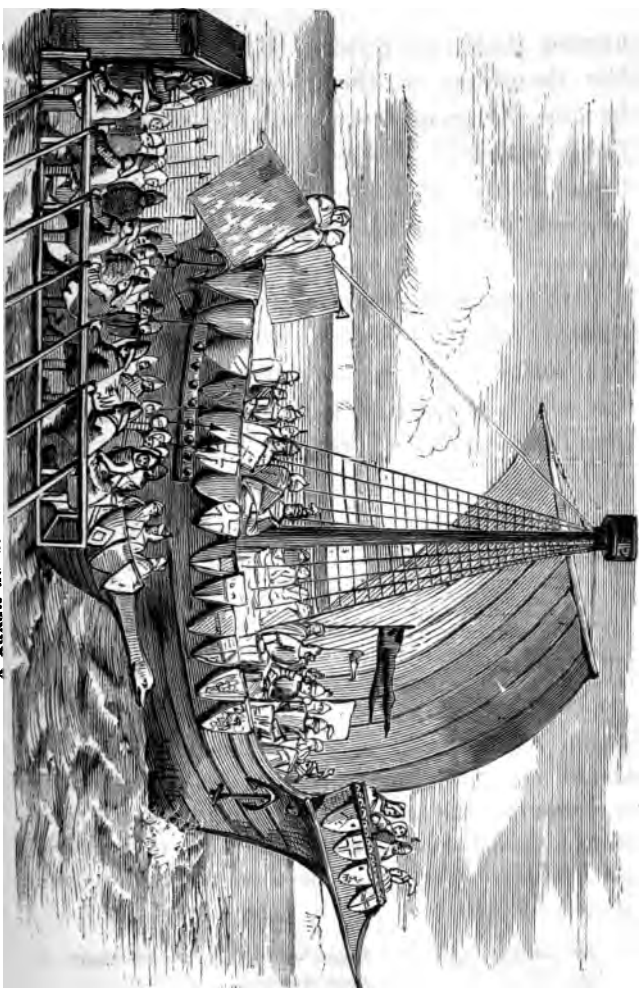
Crecy, he found a French force four times as great as his own blocking his way on the plain of Agincourt. His men were tired with their long march, and a great many of them were shoeless; yet no thought of yielding entered his mind. Crecy was near, and the memory of its great victory gave him such courage that he resolved to cut his way through the French host, or die in the attempt.

The English archers were placed as usual in the front rank. From their belts hung axes and hatchets, which gave them the look of carpenters. In the ground before them were fixed some sharp pointed stakes to hinder the approach of the French horse, and on each side of the narrow plain was a wood which served as a good defence. A heavy fall of rain had turned the ground into mud, and made it unfit for the movement of horsemen. The French army was strong in mounted men. The chief nobles of France were there in crowds clad in heavy armour upon horses covered with steel. Trusting in their numbers their front ranks pushed forward against the English line of stakes, but the great war-horses weighted with their riders and heavy

armour sank in the thick mud, and could only drag on step by step. Such an attack placed them at the mercy of the English bowmen, whose arrows fell thick and fast with deadly effect. The wounded horses plunged and backed, flinging their riders into the mire, and throwing the ranks behind into confusion. Then into the midst of struggling men and horses the English archers rushed with axe, hatchet, or sword in hand, and the field was soon covered with dead. The number of prisoners equalled the number of the whole English army, and the slain were almost as many.

At the close of the battle word was brought to Henry that another body of Frenchmen was pillaging his baggage, and preparing to fall upon him. Thinking himself in danger from the presence of so many prisoners he gave orders that they should be instantly killed. Then began a fearful slaughter of unarmed men, and hundreds were cut to pieces before it was found out that the alarm of another attack was a false one.

Agincourt was the beginning of victories which placed France in the power of Henry V. *Five* years later most of the French nobles



WAR-VESSELS OF THE TIME OF HENRY V.

agreed that the English King should marry the daughter of the French monarch, and become King of France on the death of his father-in-law. The marriage took place, and then Henry was allowed to rule France as Regent, because its own King was weak in mind.

Two years afterwards Henry V. died in the midst of all his glory and splendour, and thus his great schemes of conquest came to an end. He left a little boy nine months old, whose after life was full of trouble.

DATE.

Battle of Agincourt 1415 A.D.

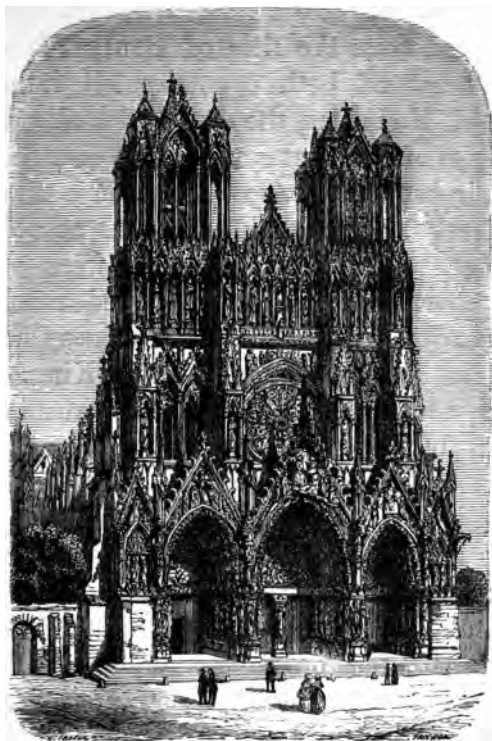
SUMMARY.

Henry V. wanted to make a great name by conquests in France. He renewed the claim of Edward III. to the crown of that country. He fought the battle of Agincourt in 1415, and obtained a great victory over an army four times as large as his own. He married the French King's daughter, and was acknowledged as heir to the French throne. But he died before he could inherit it.

im'-i-tate
re-cov'-er
pos-ses'-sions

hatch'-ets
ap-proach'
e'-qual-led

strug'-gling
slaugh'-ter
mar'-ri-age



RHEIMS CATHEDRAL.

LESSON XXVIII.

HENRY VI. (1422 A.D.—1460 A.D.).—JOAN OF
ARC, THE MAID OF ORLEANS.

THE late King's child was hailed King of
England and France directly after his father's

death, and took the title of Henry VI. The government of both countries fell into the hands of his uncles, the Duke of Bedford and the Duke of Gloucester, who were men as able as their brother Henry V. Though many of the great nobles of France had agreed to accept the English rule, there were others who refused to do so, and wished rather to fight for the cause of their own Prince Charles, the eldest son of the late French King. All France south of the river Loire was in his favour, but the land to the north of that stream was in English hands. The Duke of Bedford, who held the command in that country, resolved to follow the French Prince beyond the Loire; but he could not do this without first taking the town of Orleans, which, situated on that river, guarded the way to the south. So he sent a small army to besiege it, and was on the point of taking it, when help came to the French from a quarter least expected, and saved the city from capture. The saviour of Orleans was none other than a simple peasant girl, known in English by the name of Joan of Arc.

Joan was the daughter of a poor cottager, *who lived in a little village in the east of*

France. She, like all persons in her rank of life, was unable to read or write. She had a thoughtful and pious mind, and loved as a child to wander in the fields and woods around her native village, to think of fairies and dream of visions. As she grew into girlhood, she often heard stories of the misery of her country on account of the fearful wars with the English, and these tales so filled her thoughts and stirred her spirit that she was led to fancy she heard heavenly voices calling upon her to deliver France. At first people laughed at her and called her simple; but she held so firmly to the belief that she had such a mission from Heaven, that she was at last sent on horseback, dressed as a soldier, to the town where the French Prince Charles was keeping his court. After much difficulty she gained admission to the presence of the prince, whom, it is said, she singled out from a throng of nobles and soldiers, though she had never seen him before. She then made known her errand, saying that Heaven had sent her to drive the English away from Orleans, and take him to the town of Rheims to be crowned. The latter statement seemed very unlikely, for Rheims was situated in the part of France under

English rule. Charles, however, thought that no harm could come from her help, and that if his men could be brought to believe in her they might fight more boldly in his cause. So he favoured her plans, and gave support to the wonderful stories that were told about her.

Joan was then about eighteen years of age, active, tall, and well formed. Mounted on a grey steed, clad in white armour from head to foot, and with a white banner bearing the figures of lilies waving in her hand, she put herself at the head of some thousands of French soldiers, and marched to the relief of Orleans. The English had heard strange rumours of the maid, and spoke of her as a witch. Belief in witches and witchcraft was then common in all countries, because people everywhere were ignorant. If men or women seemed to know more than others about plants and other natural objects, they were set down as wizards or witches. When Joan of Arc came in sight of the English, they lost their usual courage, and let her pass into Orleans without striking a blow. Such a result as this filled the French soldiers and townsmen with hope of victory. Under her *leadership* they attacked the English with

success, and in the end forced them to raise



MONUMENT TO JOAN OF ARC IN ROUEN.

the siege and withdraw to the north. Thus

the city was saved; and the brave girl from that time was known as the Maid of Orleans.

Her first promise being now fulfilled, she directly set about the second. She persuaded Charles to march to Rheims, the old crowning place of the French kings, though the country around was in English hands. As she drew near the city the townsmen drove out the English garrison, and threw open the gates to



GROAT OF HENRY VI.

their own prince. There Charles was crowned two months after the raising of the siege of Orleans.

Joan now said her work was done, and begged the King to let her return to her village home. But he, knowing that she was worth an army to him, begged her to remain until his enemies were driven out of the land. Soon afterwards she fell into the hands of the English, by whom she was tried as a witch

and condemned to be burnt. This cruel sentence was carried out in the market-place of Rouen, the old capital of Normandy.

DATES.

| | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|
| Joan of Arc saved Orleans | 1429 A.D. |
| „ „ burnt at Rouen | 1431 „ |

SUMMARY.

Henry VI. was only nine months old when his father died. His uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, managed the kingdom. The English armies held all France north of the Loire. But a poor peasant girl, Joan of Arc, led the French to victory, and succeeded in getting the native King crowned at Rheims. Afterwards she was captured, and cruelly put to death as a witch in the town of Rouen.

Gar'-ri-son, a body of soldiers holding a town or castle against an enemy.

Be-siege', to attack a town or castle in order to capture it.

sit'-u-at-ed
sav'-i-our

cot'-tag-er
fair'-ies

be-lieve'
re-lief'





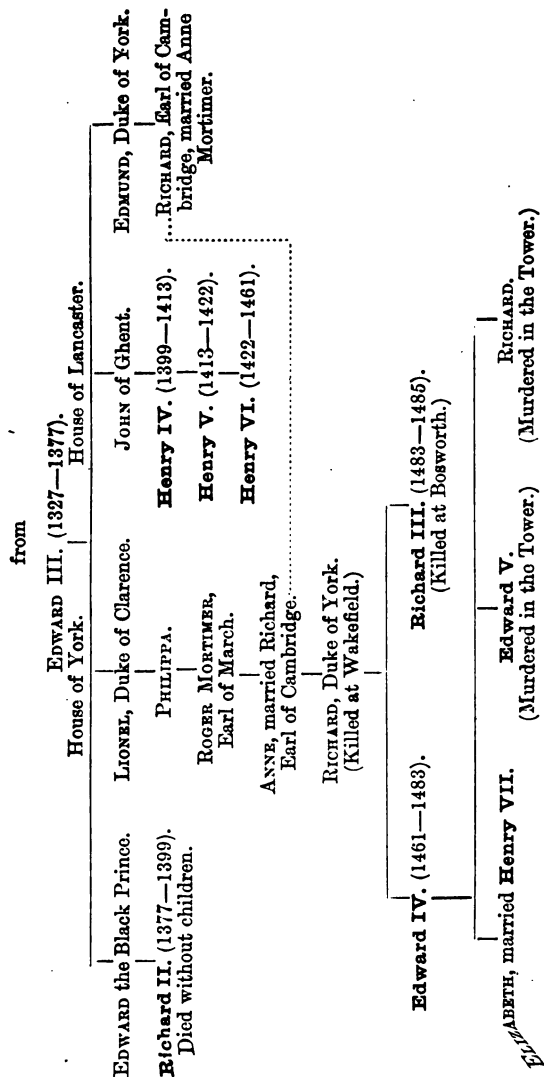
HENRY VI.

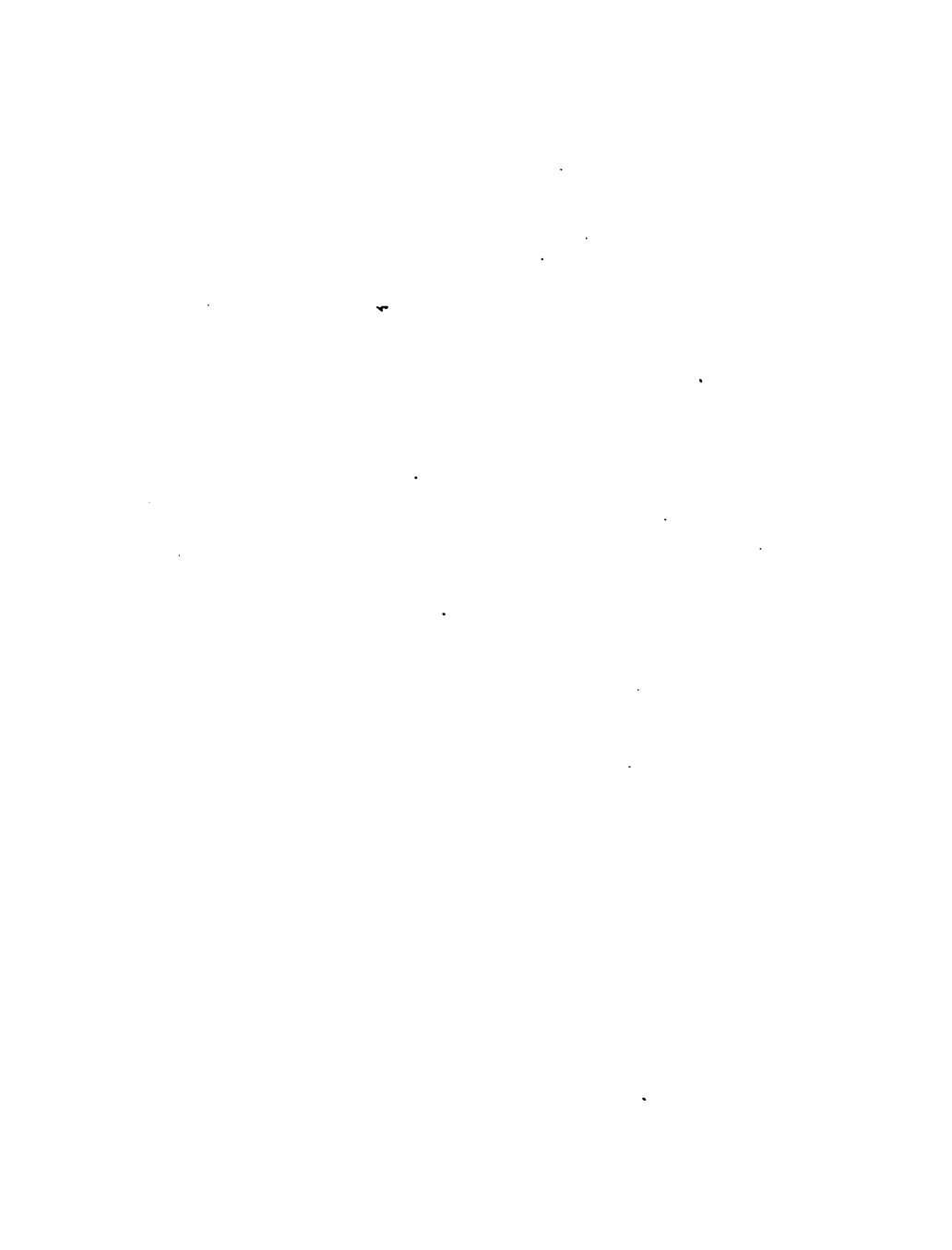
LESSON XXIX.

LANCASTRIANS AND YORKISTS.

THE movement begun by Joan of Arc gathered strength year after year, while the English cause became weaker and weaker. The death of the Duke of Bedford, and disputes in

TABLE SHOWING THE DESCENT OF THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER





England between the relations of young Henry VI., so hindered the English, that twenty years after the burning of the Maid of Orleans the only place in France left in English hands was Calais. But the Kings of England did not cease to call themselves Kings of France until a few years ago.

When the English were driven out of all their possessions in France, excepting Calais, Henry VI. was nearly thirty years of age. He had nothing of the skill and energy of his father, and was quite unfit to rule in times so troublous as his. As a man he was pious, meek, gentle, and forgiving; but in days when wars were common and the barons quarrelsome, a king needed to be a man of strong will to maintain his power.

Henry's uncles had for many years managed the affairs of the kingdom, and after their death he was guided chiefly by the counsels of his wife, and one or two nobles high in her favour. This lady was a remarkable woman. She was the daughter of the Earl of Anjou, a powerful French lord, and was noted for her beauty and high spirit. Margaret of Anjou, for such was her name, was as strong as her husband was weak, and right bravely did she

struggle for him, when trouble came upon him.

The loss of the French provinces made the Queen and her advisers very unpopular. One of her chief friends was forced to leave the kingdom; but the ship in which he sailed was boarded by some English sailors, and the unhappy nobleman was taken out and placed in a boat, where his head was cut off with a rusty sword, and his body thrown into the sea. Serious riots also took place in the south-eastern counties, and a party of rebels entered London in triumph. These outrages show how disturbed the country was.

As yet Henry had no child, and his health was not good. The attention of some of the nobles was therefore drawn to the question, "Who shall be king on Henry's death?"

The eyes of many of the people were directed to Richard, Duke of York, who was the descendant of a cousin of Richard II., older than Henry IV., as we read in the twenty-sixth Lesson. By right of birth the Duke of York had a better claim to the crown than Henry VI., if the succession to the throne depended only upon the order of birth; but this was not the *fact*, for the Parliament could settle the crown

upon whomsoever it pleased. Thus the House of Lancaster reigned by the will of Parliament, and Henry VI. was, therefore, the lawful king. But now, as his rule was not popular and his health was not good, the National Council might choose another king, and no one had a better claim to its choice than the Duke of York.

There was another branch of the Lancaster family which claimed descent from the father of Henry IV.; but this branch was not of lawful birth. The head of this line then living was the Duke of Somerset. As this nobleman was high in favour with the King and Queen, the friends of the Duke of York were afraid that some plan might be formed to give the crown to the Somerset family, if the King should die childless. So when the King became insane the York party drove Somerset from the court, and placed the Duke of York at the head of the Government, and Parliament named him Protector of the kingdom.

DATE.

Calais left as the only English possession in France . 1451 A.D.

SUMMARY.

After the victories of Joan of Arc the English were quickly driven out of France, and could only

keep Calais. When Henry VI. grew to manhood he showed a very weak character. After the death of his uncles he left the management of affairs to his wife, Margaret of Anjou. In uncertainty as to the future, people began to look to Richard, Duke of York. He was made Protector of the kingdom.

en'-er-gy

troub'-lous

quar'-rel-some

beau'-ty

ques'-tion

suc'-ces'-sion

de-scent'

gov'-ern-ment

tri'-umph



LESSON XXX.

THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

IN the year following the dismissal of Somerset Henry got well; the Duke of York was removed from his office, and Somerset again became the chief adviser at court. This change was not pleasing to the friends of York. Following the example of the barons in the reigns of Edward II. and Richard II., they took up arms against the royal favourite, and in a battle at St. Albans, near London, slew him and captured the King.

The battle of St. Albans was the first fight in the long series of wars called the Wars of the Roses. They were so called because each party in the struggle took for its badge a rose. The party of York chose for its badge a white rose, and the party of Lancaster a red one.

The Wars of the Roses lasted for thirty years, during which time twelve great battles

were fought. This quarrel between the rival Houses brought about many changes in our country, because many princes of royal blood and most of the old nobility were destroyed in the struggle.

Richard, Duke of York, did not claim the crown until several battles had been fought, and then Parliament, in the hope of stopping further bloodshed, agreed to make him king on the death of Henry VI. But Queen Margaret, who had now a little son, would not hear of such an agreement, and the war became more bitter than before. In a great battle at Wakefield, in Yorkshire, she defeated the Yorkists. In this fight the Duke of York was taken prisoner and put to death. His head was cut off and placed upon the walls of York, with a paper crown set on it in mockery. His second son, a youth seventeen years old, was flying for life with his guardian over Wakefield Bridge, when a Lancastrian lord met him and stabbed him to the heart. "As your father killed mine," said the savage baron, "so I will kill you." Deeds like these show how cruel the civil war made men.

Margaret, flushed with the victory of Wakefield, *marched southwards towards London.*

At St. Albans she was opposed by another Yorkist force, but the struggle which there took place ended in her favour. The victory was disgraced by cruel executions, and the northern men in her ranks were allowed to pillage the surrounding country. By such acts she missed her chance of entering London and taking possession of the capital.

From this time the wars became more cruel, because the spirit of revenge filled the actors in the strife.

The eldest son of Richard of York, Edward, Earl of March, took his father's place. He fought his way from the Welsh border to London, where he was received with shouts of joy, and was hailed as King Edward IV. by the leading barons, bishop, and citizens.

Margaret, much disappointed with the results of her victories at Wakefield and St. Albans, retreated to the north of England.

Thus the rule of the House of Lancaster came to an end and passed to the House of York; but the wars between the two parties went on for some time longer.

DATES.

| | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|-----------|
| Wars of the Roses began at St. Albans | . | 1455 A.D. |
| Battle of Wakefield | . | 1460 „ |
| Earl of March made King Edward IV | . | 1461 „ |

SUMMARY.

The strife between the Houses of York and Lancaster was called the Wars of the Roses, because the Yorkists wore a white rose and the Lancastrians a red rose. The first battle in this conflict was the battle of St. Albans, fought in 1455. The next was at Wakefield in 1460, when the Duke of York was put to death. Then Edward, Earl of March, the Duke's son, claimed the crown, and having fought his way to London, was proclaimed as Edward IV.

fol'-low-ing
re-mo'-ved
dis-grac'-ed

cap'-tur-ed
badge
ex-e-cu'-tions

a-gree'-ment
guard'-i-an
mock'-e-ry



LESSON XXXI.

EDWARD IV. (1461 A.D.—1483 A.D.).

WARWICK THE KINGMAKER.

MARGARET of Anjou, the wife of Henry VI., had too much spirit to allow Edward IV. to reign in peace. Her party was strong in the North of England, where she was able several times to put armies in the field; but her brave attempts to maintain her husband's cause failed in every case, and she was obliged at last to escape to France.

One of the greatest friends of the House of York was the Earl of Warwick. This nobleman held estates in many parts of England, from which he was able to gather a large number of fighting men, and so on this account his power was great. The men who lived on the lands of some great lord usually regarded him as the chief whom they ought to serve, and in whose cause they felt bound to fight. At

his call, therefore, they left their labour and their homes to follow his banner to the wars. It was this tie between lord and vassal that made the barons so powerful in the Plantagenet period of our history, and enabled them to oppose the King. The Earl of Warwick had more followers than any other baron in the land. In his numerous castles he kept a great number of men either dressed in his livery or wearing his badge, and practised in the use of arms. Men thus kept were called *retainers*. It is said that Warwick had in his various castles 30,000 retainers, and that in his London house alone six oxen were eaten by his men every morning for breakfast. With such a power as this at his beck and call he was a tower of strength to the House of York, and was the chief cause of its success.

After Edward IV. had reigned a few years, Warwick changed sides and joined the party of the Lancastrians. The King himself was to blame for this. He had sent the Earl abroad to arrange a marriage for him with a foreign princess, and during his absence secretly married a widow of a Lancastrian knight, whom he met by chance when out a-hunting. Great *was* Warwick's anger on his return to England

to find that he had been sent on a fool's errand, and to see at court the family and friends of the Queen covered with the highest honours. Then his proud spirit drove him into rebellion, and, calling out his forces, he defeated the royal troops sent against him, and in the fight took prisoners the Queen's father and brother, whom he at once beheaded.

But, unable to follow up this success, he fled to France, where he met Margaret of Anjou, and agreed to take up her cause. To make this union all the stronger, the Earl's daughter Anne was given in marriage to Margaret's son, Prince Edward.

SUMMARY.

Margaret of Anjou, wife of Henry VI., kept up the war after Edward IV. was crowned. The Earl of Warwick, who had 30,000 fighting men, at first supported Edward. Then the new King offended Warwick by refusing to marry the princess whom he had sent the Earl to obtain for him. After that Warwick turned against Edward and fought for Henry VI., but he was obliged to take refuge in France. There the Earl's daughter married Prince Edward, son of Henry VI.

Re-tain'-ers, dependents bound to fight for their lord.

us'-u-al-ly
num'-er-ous

hon'-ours
ab'-sence

break'-fast
er'-rand

LESSON XXXII.

END OF THE LANCASTRIAN LINE.

SHORTLY after this agreement Warwick landed in England, and was soon at the head of a great army. King Edward, unable to meet such a force, at once took ship and sailed away, leaving the Earl master of the kingdom. Henry VI. was then taken out of the Tower of London, where he had been kept many years, and placed once more upon the throne. Warwick was then called the "Kingmaker" by the people, because he seemed able to pull down and set up as king whomsoever he pleased.

But the citizens of London were for the most part on the Yorkist side, and in those days the party favoured by London was sure to win in the end. Scarcely six months had passed away before Edward IV. was again in *London*, and Henry VI. again in the Tower.

The "Kingmaker" advanced towards the capital with an army, and fixed his camp at Barnet, a few miles to the north of London. There he was met by the Yorkists under Edward IV., and hopelessly defeated. In the battle of Barnet Warwick fell dead in the thickest of the fight, and scarcely a leading noble of his party escaped with life.

On the day of the "Kingmaker's" death, Margaret of Anjou and her son landed with a small force in the south of England, and, hearing the sad news of Barnet field, hurried to the borders of Wales, where an army had been collected in her favour. At Tewkesbury, on the river Severn, she was overtaken by Edward, and her army defeated. She and her son were taken prisoners and brought to the King's tent, where all the Yorkist leaders were collected. Edward asked the young Lancastrian prince, who was then only about sixteen years old, how he dared to come into his kingdom? The youth, high-spirited like his mother, said that he came to claim his just rights. Then the King meanly struck the boy in the mouth with his iron-gloved hand, and forthwith the King's brothers brutally murdered him with their daggers. After

this the Lancastrian party remained quiet for several years. Nothing more was heard of Henry VI. ; but it is supposed that he, too, was murdered. Margaret at last was allowed to return to France, where, having no longer a son to scheme and fight for, she passed the remaining few years of her life in peace and privacy.

So ended the Lancastrian line of kings, under whom the domains of England had for a time been greater than under any sovereign up to that date. The loss of French lands was thought a great misfortune at the time. But afterwards it turned out a blessing, by confining the attention of English rulers to their own island. The line of York seemed now secure of power. But the wickedness of one member of the House soon ruined it, and then, as will be seen, both families were happily united in a new line of kings.

DATES.

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Battle of Barnet, and death of the "kingmaker" | 1471 A.D. |
| Battle of Tewkesbury | 1471 " |

SUMMARY.

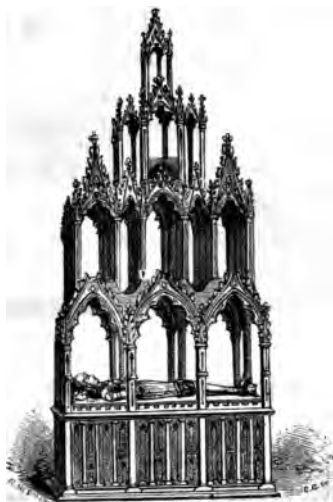
Warwick came back to England and raised a large army ; King Edward could not meet it, and fled out of the country. Henry VI. was brought

out of the Tower and set on the throne again. This gave Warwick the name of the "Kingmaker." But a short time afterwards the Kingmaker was defeated at Barnet (1471), and Margaret at Tewkesbury in the same year. Henry is believed to have been murdered in the Tower. He was the last Lancastrian King. Edward IV. kept the throne.

a-gree'-ment
scarce'-ly

cap'-it-al
col-lect'-ed

brut'-al-ly
priv'-a-cy





CAXTON'S PRINTING OFFICE IN WESTMINSTER.

LESSON XXXIII.

WILLIAM CAXTON AND THE PRINTING-PRESS.

In the latter half of the reign of Edward IV., when there was a lull in the Wars of the Roses, *the printing-press* was brought for the first time

into England. Great changes for good followed this new invention. Books became more plentiful and cheaper than they were before, and on this account readers became more numerous, and knowledge spread. The man who brought the first printing-press into England was William Caxton, and his name deserves to be held in the highest honour.

William Caxton was born in the county of Kent. He served his time as an apprentice to a London mercer. In those days a mercer not only dealt in silk, but also in wool and woollen cloth. As the trade in these articles was carried on between London, Calais, and the countries about the lower part of the river Rhine, much writing would pass between these places, and a mercer's apprentice would be expected to know how to read and write French besides his own tongue. The name of the district that traded with England in wool and woollen cloth was Flanders, which now forms a part of the kingdom of Belgium. To Flanders Caxton went after finishing his apprenticeship, and there he followed his trade, and became one of the chief men among the English merchants who had settled in that country.

But Caxton did not allow his business to

prevent him from increasing his knowledge of books. So when Margaret, the sister of Edward IV., married the ruler of that land, Caxton came under her notice as a man fond of learning, and he was employed by her to copy writings. Not content to work simply as a copyist, he set about translating a French book called "Tales of Troy" into English, and thus become himself a book-maker. But the labour of copying was very tedious and slow, because it had to be done by hand, and few of Caxton's friends would get copies of his "Tales of Troy," if they waited for him to write them.

About this time some Germans at Mayence, on the Rhine, had tried the plan of making letters in wood and also in metal, which were called type, and by inking and pressing these upon paper the whole page of a book was covered with words in shorter time than it took a penman to write a line or two. The knowledge of this useful invention soon spread to Flanders, where Caxton was living, and he quickly learnt the art of printing, and used it in copying the "Tales of Troy," which was, therefore, the first book *printed* in the English language.

After an absence of thirty-five years Caxton came back to England, and set up a printing-press in a part of the buildings belonging to Westminster Abbey. There for fifteen years he laboured hard at book-making in spite of advancing old age, when most men wish for quietness and rest. A "red pole" marked his place of business. To this sign he invited all lovers of books to come. "If it please any man, spiritual or temporal," so runs his notice, "to buy any pyes * . . . all emprinted after the form of the present letter, which be well and truly correct, let him come to Westminster into the Almonry at the red pole, and he shall have them good, cheap." The first book printed in England was a translation of a French work called "The Game and Playe of the Chesse."

SUMMARY.

The first printer in England was William Caxton, who worked at Westminster in the reign of Edward IV. He learned the art in Germany.

plent'-i-ful
in-ven'-tion

ap-pren'-tice
mer'-cer

cop-y-ist
ted-i-ous

* Printed matter, books.

LESSON XXXIV.

THE PRINTING-PRESS IN ENGLAND.

How busy our first printer Caxton was, may be judged from the fact that sixty-five books in all came forth from his press, and that many of these were translations which he himself had written. The books most in demand were stories and romances, because all people young in learning love to read tales of adventure and the noble deeds of brave men and women. But Caxton did not forget to print books that might help on the learning of his countrymen in higher studies. He printed the poems of Chaucer and other old poets, and one or two works of an historical kind, besides other writings of some ancient authors.

One of the difficulties that beset Caxton was how to make his English plain to most readers, *because* he had no standard of spelling to

follow, and the sound of words changed so quickly in those days. He tells us his difficulty in these words: "I took an old book and read therein, and certainly the English was so rude and broad I could not well understand it." Again he writes: "Our language now used varieth far from that which was used and spoken when I was born." But besides this difficulty there was another on account of the use of dialects in different parts of the country, as we read in the Twenty-fifth Lesson. On this point Caxton writes: "Common English that is spoken in one shire varieth from another so much, that in my days it happened that certain merchants were in a ship in Thames for to have sailed over the sea into Zealand,* and for lack of wind they tarried at Foreland † and went on land for to refresh them. And one of them, named Sheffield, a mercer, came into a house and asked for meat, and especially he asked them after eggs. And the good wife answered that she could speak no French. And the merchant was angry, for he also could speak no French, but would have eggs, but she understood him not. And then at last another

* Now part of Holland.

† On the coast of Kent.

O the right noble / right excellent & vertuous prince
George duc of Clarence Erle of warwopk and of
Salisbury / grete chamberlayn of Englonde & leutenant
of Irelande eldest brother of kynge Edward by the grace
of god & kynge of Englonde and of fraunce / your most
humble seruant William Caxton amonge other of your
seruantes sende vnto your peas . helthe . joye and victo-
rye vpon your Enempes /

SPECIMEN OF CAXTON'S PRINTING.

said he would have eyren ; then the good wife said she understood him well. Lo ! what should a man in these days now write, eggs or eyren ?" says the puzzled printer ; " certainly it is hard to please every man by cause of diversity and change of language."

Many of the nobles and others often came to see Caxton's press, because they thought it a wonderful invention, and they encouraged him in many ways to go on in his great work. Edward IV. and several members of the royal family gave the aged printer their special favour, and set the fashion of forming libraries. Books became so much in demand that before Caxton's death printing-presses were set up in the City of London, and also at Oxford and St. Albans.

The invention of printing took place just at the time when men wished to learn something of the writings of the poets and teachers who had lived in Greece and Italy, when this island of ours was peopled long ago by the half-savage Britons. The means of greater knowledge were thus given to our countrymen and others, and in our own land many and great improvements took place as knowledge became more wide-spread.

DATES.

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| The printing-press brought to England | . 1474 A.D. |
| Death of William Caxton | . 1491 „ |

SUMMARY.

Amongst the earliest books printed were the poems of Chaucer. One difficulty found by Caxton was the great difference between the dialects of English in various parts of the country. Printing made books cheaper and led to a great increase in reading. The invention came just at a time when people were beginning to be anxious for more knowledge.

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| Ro-man'-ces, fanciful tales of love or adventure. | | Di-vers'-i-ties, differences, varieties. |
|--|--|---|

his-tor'-ic-al
an'-ci-ent

dif'-fic-ult-ies
di'-a-lects

tar'-ri-ed
im-prove'-ment





MURDER OF THE PRINCES IN THE TOWER.

LESSON XXXV.

EDWARD V. (1483 A.D.) AND RICHARD III.
(1483 A.D.—1485 A.D.)

EDWARD IV. left behind him two little sons, Edward and Richard, and a daughter named Elizabeth. Before his death he told his brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, to take

charge of the kingdom as regent until his little boy Edward, who was then eleven years of age, should be old enough to rule England himself. This the Duke promised to do ; but instead of keeping his promise he began to plot to get the crown for himself. He sent the little princes to the Tower of London, and put in prison all the great men likely to favour their cause. He ordered the brothers of the queen-mother and their friends to be put to death. Having thus got rid of those likely to oppose his schemes, he caused a report to be set abroad in London that the children of his brother were not born of a lawful marriage. Then one of the great nobles, attended by the Lord Mayor of London and some citizens, waited upon the Duke of Gloucester, and asked him to become King of England. Thus Richard III. mounted the throne three months after his brother's death. Little Edward was never crowned ; but he is always reckoned among the list of English kings.

Richard III. then made a tour through the country and was crowned again at York, which was at that time the most important city in *the north* of England. During this journey

reports were brought to him that many of the people were saying that he had no right to be king as long as his brother's children were alive. Then the false and wicked King resolved to commit one of the worst murders that ever happened in our history. He sent one of his trusty friends back to London with orders to the Governor of the Tower to put the young princes out of the way. But on the Governor refusing to do such a cruel deed, the royal messenger demanded the keys of the Tower for twenty-four hours. During the night he and two other hired ruffians crept up the stone steps leading to the room where the princes slept together, and smothered them in their sleep with the pillows and bed-clothes, and secretly buried their bodies at the foot of the stairs, deep down under a heap of stones.

Nearly two hundred years afterwards, in the reign of Charles II., the bones of two children were found under a staircase in the Tower, and were then buried in Westminster Abbey, as the remains of Edward V. and his brother.

Richard III. tried to keep the crime secret. News then travelled but slowly, because such things as post offices, telegraphs, and news-

papers were not known. Urgent messages were sent from one town to another by horsemen, so that it would take several days for news to reach York from London. Traders and carriers were the usual means of spreading news from one place to another.

The disappearance of the princes in the Tower was soon made known, and although none but the murderers knew what really had become of them, yet the people did not hesitate to say that they had been foully killed. Then the leading men amongst the Yorkists and Lancastrians, who ever since the outbreak of the Wars of the Roses had bitterly hated each other, joined together to drive away from the throne such a monster as Richard III. They began to see that it was high time to put an end to quarrels, which were destroying so many lives and ruining the country ; and they formed a plan to unite the claims of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster.

Their plan was to join in marriage the Princess Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and the heir to the House of Lancaster, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. This nobleman was the descendant of the *Somerset* branch of the Lancaster family, about

whom we read in the Twenty-ninth Lesson. The Earl of Richmond was at this time living in exile in the north-western part of France, where through the kindness of the French King he was allowed to collect troops for the invasion of England.

When Richard III. heard of the plots of his enemies, he said that his own son should marry the Princess Elizabeth ; but the sudden death of that prince upset his plans. He then thought of marrying her himself, though she was his niece, but his friends advised him not to do a thing so disgraceful.

In the second year of this reign, Henry of Richmond set sail from France with a French force of three thousand men, and landed at Milford in South Wales, where he was joined by three thousand Welshmen and others. With these he marched towards the middle of England, trusting that his Lancastrian and Yorkist friends would gather round his banner as he advanced. Where and how he met the army of King Richard, and what came of the battle between them, shall be told in the next Lesson.

SUMMARY.

After the death of Edward IV., in 1483, his brother Richard took charge of the kingdom because

the new King, Edward V., was only a young boy. Richard placed young Edward and his brother in the Tower and paid men to murder them. Then he made himself King as Richard III. Every one was shocked at this crime. And Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, landed from France in South Wales to march against Richard.

Reg'-ent, one who takes charge
of a kingdom when the

King is a child or other-
wise unable to rule.

pro'-mised
schemes
im-port'-ant

reck'-on-ed
mayor
niece

ruf'-fi-ans
bur'-i-ed
tel'-e-graphs



MILFORD, THE LANDING PLACE OF HENRY TUDOR.



GROAT OF RICHARD III.

LESSON XXXVI.

THE BATTLE OF BOSWORTH.—THE END OF THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

ON a day in the month of August in the year 1485 Richard III. set out from the town of Leicester to meet Henry of Richmond, who was advancing from the west. He pitched his camp that evening on a large piece of open ground near Market-Bosworth. Knowing that his crimes had made him hateful to most persons, and suspecting the friendship of some of the nobles in his army, he could not rest in his tent. At midnight he wandered alone around the camp, and finding a sentinel asleep at his post he stabbed him to the heart. In the early

morning of the next day he told his servants what he had done, coolly saying, "I found him asleep, and have left him as I found him."

By this time the Earl of Richmond was in sight with a force only half as numerous as his enemy's, but he knew he had many friends in Richard's camp, and expected them to come over to his side during the fight. Richard himself was very anxious, because his friend the Duke of Norfolk brought him a paper which he had found pinned to his tent, and on which were the following lines:—

"Jockey of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon, thy master, is bought and sold."

As soon as Richmond began the battle Richard saw one half his own army standing idle. The sight made him furious. Putting himself at the head of his trusty followers he dashed down upon the spot where he saw the standard of his rival, because his only hope now lay in the death of his enemy. He had almost cut his way through to the Earl, when Lord Stanley, who had followed Richard to the field of battle, turned his force against his former friends. One of Richard's knights seeing Stanley's movement, offered the King a fresh and swift *horse*, and bade him fly for his life. "Never!"

cried Richard. "Not one foot will I fly so long as breath bides within my breast. Here will I end all my battles or my life. I will die King of England."

Richard fought like a lion, and cut down an enemy at every sweep of his sword, but overpowered by numbers he fell dead on the field, and then his party turned and fled. The crown that he wore on the helmet of his steel armour was found hanging on a hawthorn bush, dented and marked by many a blow. It was at once placed on the head of the victor amidst the shouts of "God save King Henry!" The spot where this took place was afterwards known as Crown Hill, and Henry took for his badge a crown in a hawthorn bush.

The dead King's body, despoiled of its armour, was thrown across the back of a horse and taken to Leicester, where it was buried in one of the churches. Thus perished the last of the Plantagenet line of kings, of which line Henry II. was the first. The battle of Bosworth was the last in the Wars of the Roses, which began thirty years before in the fight at St. Albans. During that long and fierce struggle cruel deeds were done by both parties, and numbers of great men and thousands of

lower rank lost their lives. On the Lancaster side Henry VI. and his only son were murdered ; on the Yorkist side the same fate befell the father and two sons of Edward IV. Such also was the fate of many men of noble rank, while many others died by the hand of the executioner.

The death of so many of the nobility made the kingly office more powerful than it had ever been. In earlier times the nobles were numerous and strong enough to keep in check the kingly power ; and they were always ready to join together under the lead of one of their number to make the King rule according to law, as they did under Simon de Montfort in the reign of Henry III. They were now no longer able to do so, and, therefore, the Tudor line of kings founded by Henry of Richmond had more authority than the Plantagenets.

But though the Wars of the Roses lessened the power of the nobility, they were favourable to the growth of the freedom and power of the common people. Serfdom, about which we read so much in the story of the peasant revolt in the reign of Richard II., received its death-blow. In course of time the House of Commons grew in power, and Parliament became

strong enough to check the royal authority when it was wrongly used.

DATE.

Battle of Bosworth 1485 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Henry of Richmond met Richard III. in battle at Bosworth Field in August, 1485. Richard's army had no heart to fight for a murderer, and Lord Stanley went over to Henry. The King tried to get at Henry to kill him, but was himself slain, and his body was carried to Leicester. He was the last of the Plantagenet kings. In the Wars of the Roses so many barons were killed or ruined, that the kings of England for some time afterwards found no one powerful enough to oppose them.

Sen'-tin-el, a soldier set to
keep watch.

away a prize from
another.

Riv'-al, one who strives to take

Dint-ed, squeezed in by blows.

pitch-ed

anx'-i-ous

haw'-thorn



LESSON XXXVII.

HENRY VII. (1485 A.D.—1509 A.D.).

YORKIST RISINGS.

THE family name of the new king was Tudor, and for this reason the royal line which now began to reign was called the Tudor line of sovereigns. Henry VII. was crowned some months before his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, because he wished the people to understand that he claimed the throne in his own right as the heir of the House of Lancaster, and not because he was the husband of the heiress of the House of York.

His jealousy of the Yorkists caused him to behave so coolly towards that party that some of its leading members began to plot against him in favour of a nephew of Edward IV. and Richard III. This prince was called the Earl of Warwick, because his mother was the *daughter* and heiress of Warwick, “the king-

maker." He was at this time fifteen years old, and a prisoner in the Tower of London. Some of the plotters put forward a youth of the same age as the imprisoned Earl, named Lambert Simnel, the son of an Oxford baker, and said he was the Earl of Warwick escaped from the Tower.

A great number of people believed the story and rose up in arms, because as news travelled slowly, they could not know that the real Earl was still in the Tower. The rising was supported by the sister of Edward IV., who lived in Flanders, as we learnt in the lesson about Caxton. She sent a large body of men to aid the false Earl, because she was a bitter enemy of Henry VII. A battle between the rebels and the King took place at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, where Simnel was taken prisoner. Henry treated the boy mercifully. He placed him as a servant in the royal kitchen, and afterwards made him keeper of the hawks. Hawking was then one of the chief sports of the upper classes. It was after this rebellion that the Queen was crowned.

A few years after Simnel's imposture another attempt was made by the hostile Yorkists to disturb Henry's reign. They

said that the younger of the two sons of Edward IV., who were supposed to have been murdered in the Tower by the orders of Richard III., was still alive in Flanders.



HAWKING.

There was, indeed, a youth at the court of the sister of Edward IV. who styled himself the Duke of York, and was treated as if he were *really* a prince by that lady. But it was

found out afterwards that he was a Flemish merchant's son, named Perkin Warbeck. This pretender received so much support that King Henry became alarmed, and put to death several persons in England for aiding the plot.

Warbeck left Flanders for Ireland, where he was well received, because the Yorkists were popular in that island. He then went to the court of the King of Scotland, and there too he was favoured, and allowed to marry a lady of royal blood. The Scottish King even led an army in his behalf into the northern counties of England; but the people in those parts refused to join the movement, and the Scots withdrew. Then Warbeck returned to Ireland, and thence to Cornwall, where there had been some riots on account of a tax. A great number of men gathered round his banner, and hailed him as King Richard IV.; but when the royal troops drew near, he was afraid to offer battle, and ran away. He was taken prisoner, and then confessed that he was an impostor. The King treated him and his wife with much kindness, but afterwards, when he tried to escape from England, he was sent to the Tower. There he became acquainted with the young Earl of Warwick.

The two prisoners soon became friends, and plotted to regain their freedom. Their plan being discovered, the King put them both to death, in order to prevent any further disturbances on the part of the Yorkists.

DATES.

Battle of Stoke 1487 A.D.
Execution of Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick 1499 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Henry Tudor was descended on his mother's side from Edward III., and he married the daughter of Edward IV. He was crowned King as Henry VII. A grandson of Warwick the "kingmaker" was also nephew to Edward IV., and to keep him from claiming the crown he was imprisoned. An impostor called Lambert Simnel pretended that he was this young Warwick, and found followers; but he was captured and set to serve in the royal kitchen. Perkin Warbeck then pretended to be the younger son of Edward IV. and found support in Scotland. He was taken, and afterwards beheaded, together with the imprisoned Earl of Warwick.

sov'-e-reign
heir-ess

jeal'-ous-y
ban-ner

pre-tend'-er
with-drew'



LESSON XXXVIII.

CHANGES IN ENGLAND UNDER HENRY VII.

HENRY VII. was a shrewd and able prince, and chose for his advisers men of wisdom and experience. The aim of his rule was to make his power so strong that no party in the country could venture to oppose him with any hope of success ; and by the ease with which he crushed the risings of Simnel and Warbeck we see how strong his power was. But he made it still stronger by keeping the country free from foreign wars, because by so doing he was not obliged to call Parliament together to ask it for money to pay the costs of war. He was shrewd enough to know that if Parliament met often its members would surely try to put some check upon his power, and, therefore, by keeping at peace he had no occasion for their aid.

We read in the Thirty-sixth Lesson how the

power of the barons was broken by the Wars of the Roses. Now King Henry took care to keep down this power by passing laws which promoted its decay. One of these laws allowed the nobles to sell their estates without making the heavy payments to the King hitherto required when lands were sold. Many persons who had grown rich by trade could therefore buy estates, and become the founders of a new class of gentry. These new landowners were less ready to take up arms in party quarrels than the old baronial families were, and peace was therefore better kept.

Another law, which also made for peace, forbade the nobles to keep or maintain armed men in their service. We saw in the civil war between the rival Houses how strong such barons as the Earl of Warwick were, because they could bring into the field thousands of armed retainers. The law which did away with such retainers was a great change for the better, and, when it was passed, English life began to take the form that we see in our day.

Henry VII. was very strict in enforcing this law, because he was determined to make the *royal authority* strong and safe. He did not

spare even his best friends if he found them guilty of breaking the act forbidding the maintenance of armed retainers. On one occasion he visited the Earl of Oxford, a great friend of the Lancastrian cause, and found two long lines of retainers in livery drawn up to receive him with honour. When leaving, the King said to the Earl, "I thank you for your good cheer, my lord, but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." So the Earl was heavily fined.

How Henry sought to strengthen his house in other ways shall be told in the next Lesson.

SUMMARY.

Henry VII. tried to make himself safe as much by wisdom as by strength. He avoided war to save money; thus he did not need to ask Parliament often for supplies, and ruled according to his own judgment. He would not allow his nobles to keep armed retainers, and so there was no power in the land to rival his own.

At-tor'-ney, one skilled in the
law. The king's attorney

looked after the king's
legal rights.

shrewd
ex-per'-i-ence

main'-ten-ance
gent'-ry

quar-rels
bar-on'-i-al

LESSON XXXIX.

THE MARRIAGE SCHEMES OF HENRY VII.

HENRY VII. aimed to secure the peace of England, and also to give his family a stronger hold upon the crown by making good marriages for his children. He married his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine, the daughter of the King of Spain. Catherine's father was one of the ablest kings of his time, and under his rule Spain grew very powerful. A marriage with the Spanish royal family added much to the power of Henry VII., because by such an alliance England was protected from the attacks of France.

Before six months had passed, Prince Arthur died. The English King then agreed to marry the young widow to his next son, Henry, who was a boy about eleven years old; and so young Catherine was kept in England until her little brother-in-law was old enough to marry her.

According to the rules of the Church it was *not* lawful for a man to marry his brother's

widow; but the Pope of Rome claimed to have the power of allowing such a marriage, and his consent was asked and given. Thus the Spanish alliance was kept up; but Catherine's second marriage did not take place till after the death of her father-in-law. Years afterwards a great dispute about the lawfulness of that union arose, and ended in bringing about some of the greatest changes that ever happened in our country's history. So the Spanish marriage scheme of Henry VII. should not be forgotten.

Another marriage that Henry VII. arranged was also an important one. This was the union of his eldest daughter Margaret with James IV. of Scotland. He hoped that this union would make England and Scotland more friendly with each other; and so it did in the end, for in after years, when the Tudor family died out, the descendant of this marriage, who was at that time King of Scotland, became also the King of England; and thus both countries were ruled by one king.

We read in the Fifteenth Lesson how King Edward I. was anxious for his son to marry the young heiress to the Scottish throne, in order to unite the two countries; and how,

when his plan failed by reason of her death, he tried to gain the northern kingdom by conquest. Ever since his time the Scots always had been unfriendly to this country. Whenever England went to war with France, the Scots were always ready to join the French and harass our northern counties. We read in the Thirty-seventh Lesson how their King received and helped Perkin Warbeck. Henry VII., therefore, did wisely when he tried, by marrying his daughter to King James IV., to establish peace between the two countries. This union we should remember, because in after years it placed the Stuart Kings of Scotland on the throne of England.

SUMMARY.

Henry VII. married his eldest son, Arthur, to Catherine of Spain because he thought that Spain would help England against France. Prince Arthur died, and then the King resolved to marry Catherine to his second son, Henry. The eldest daughter of Henry VII. was married to James IV. of Scotland, and their descendants afterwards joined the crowns of both kingdoms.

Al-li'-ance, an agreement of
friendship between na-
tions.

Har'-ass, to trouble another by
doing mischief and in-
jury.

wid'-ow
har'-ass

e-lev'en
es-tab'-lish

anx'-ious

LESSON XL.

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

DURING the latter years of this reign some daring sailors made wonderful sea voyages and discovered lands unknown before. Let us look at the map of the world and notice how large a part of the world was unknown when Henry VII. became king. Northern Africa, the greater part of Europe, and the western and southern parts of Asia, were the only regions then known. The knowledge of the remaining parts, such as America, dates its beginning from this reign.

The sailor, who first crossed the Atlantic Ocean on a voyage of discovery, was an Italian named Columbus, who was supplied with ships by the King of Spain. Before this Columbus had sent his brother to Henry VII. to ask for help, but when returning with a favourable answer he was taken by pirates, and did not

arrive in time. Columbus in his first voyage discovered the West Indies. When he came back and told the story of his discoveries, people were astonished, and began at once to plan new voyages.

There was then living at Bristol an Italian sailor named Cabot. He was so stirred by the news of what Columbus had done, that he asked King Henry to give him ships to make a voyage of discovery. He set sail, and was the first to find out the continent of North America. So the honour of discovering the mainland of America belongs to England.

About the same time a sailor from Portugal sailed round South Africa, and thus found out the way to India by sea. These and other daring seamen famous for their voyages were not English. England was not then great at sea; but these discoveries stirred up our countrymen to imitate the deeds of the Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese, and so lay the foundation of our naval greatness.

The ships used for these enterprises were very small. Some of the vessels now employed to cross the Atlantic Ocean are one hundred times larger than those in which Columbus sailed from Spain.

The discovery of America opened out a new world to the people of Europe. About fifty years after this reign Englishmen began to make the northern part of that continent a place of settlement. Thus began our great colonial empire.

Henry VII. lived to see that his family would be firmly seated upon the throne of England. Before his death he caused a beautiful chapel to be built in Westminster Abbey to receive the remains of himself and his wife. There we may now see the tomb of these founders of the royal House of Tudor.

DATES.

Discovery of the West Indies by Columbus . . . 1492 A.D.

Discovery of the North American Continent by Cabot. 1497 A.D.

SUMMARY.

In this reign the West Indies were discovered by Columbus, and Sebastian Cabot, sailing from Bristol, found the mainland of North America.

voy'-age

en'-ter-priz-es

col-on'-i-al



LESSON XLI.

HENRY VIII. (1509 A.D.—1547 A.D.).

WAR WITH FRANCE AND SCOTLAND.

HENRY VIII. was the first English king for many years past whose title to the throne was undisputed. As the son of a Lancastrian father and Yorkist mother he united in his person the claims of the two Houses of York and Lancaster. He was only eighteen years of age when he ascended the throne. His youth, handsome person, and cheerful manners made him very popular, and he also had in his favour the riches which his peace-loving father had carefully hoarded. Soon after he became king he married his brother's widow, Catherine of Spain, who, however, is better known as Catherine of Arragon.

Henry was at first guided by his father's advisers, but he fell very soon under the *influence* of a clergyman, named Thomas

Wolsey, afterwards better known as Cardinal Wolsey, who became next to the King the greatest man in the realm during the first half of the reign. We shall read about him in another Lesson.

Henry, being young and well established on the throne, was easily persuaded to join his father-in-law in a war against France. He thought of the time long past, when parts of France had been under the rule of the King of England, and now he nursed the hope that he might prove himself to be another Henry V. in war, and win back the lost French provinces. He therefore demanded that Guienne, a large province in the south-west of France, should be given up to him, and, when this was refused, he declared war against the French King. Calais, the town captured by Edward III., still remained in English hands, and was now useful as a point from which to attack France. Henry gained little glory in this struggle with the French and their allies the Scots. The war was chiefly famous for a great battle fought with the Scots on English ground, when Henry was absent in France.

In the Thirty-ninth Lesson we read how Scotland had been hostile to England for many

years; and how Henry VII. aimed to win the friendship of that country by marrying his eldest daughter, Margaret, to its King, James IV. Now when the King of France found Henry VIII. in league with Spain to do him hurt, he stirred up the Scots to make war against England. Their King, though he was the brother-in-law of Henry, could not forget the claims of the long friendship between his countrymen and France, and so he led an army into Northumberland, and was met at Flodden by an English army under the command of the Earl of Surrey.

The battle of Flodden was won by the English. The loss of men on both sides was very heavy; but the Scots lost twice as many as the victors. Their loss, however, was all the more serious because of the great number of men of high rank who fell. King James himself was amongst the slain; and there was scarcely a family of rank in Scotland which did not lose one of its members. The Earl of Surrey was rewarded for his great victory with the title of Duke of Norfolk.

Scotland was quite broken in power by the battle of Flodden. Many years passed *away* before it could recover itself; and it

never again attempted such an invasion of England.

In the year after Flodden fight Henry made peace with France; and it was then agreed that the King of France should marry Henry's younger sister Mary. Three months after the marriage the French King died; and thus the hope of a lasting friendship between the two countries passed away.

About five years afterwards a new king arose in Spain, who left a great name in history. This was Charles, the nephew of Queen Catherine of England. He afterwards became Emperor of Germany, and was then called Charles V. Thus the three chief rulers in Europe were young men, namely, Henry of England, Francis of France, and the Emperor Charles. Francis and Charles were very jealous of each other. Both of them wished to gain the friendship of the English King, in order to have his help in their struggle for power. A meeting, which on account of its splendour has been called "The Field of the Cloth of Gold," took place between Henry and Francis a few miles from Calais. Here for a fortnight the two kings with their queens, and the chief nobility of both countries, spent their

time in sports, feasts, and gay shows. So rich were the dresses of the lords and ladies, and so costly were the banquets, that many of the nobility present were almost ruined by the expense. This grand meeting ended in nothing but fair speeches. King Henry took the side of Francis or of Charles just as it suited him best.

DATES.

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Battle of Flodden | 1513 A.D. |
| The Field of the Cloth of Gold | 1520 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

Henry VIII. united the claims of the two Houses of York and Lancaster. He went to war against France, and the Scotch fought against him to help the French. The Scotch were beaten in the battle of Flodden, but nothing was gained from the war with France. Afterwards the Kings of France and England had a friendly meeting on "The Field of the Cloth of Gold," in 1520.

Realm, kingdom.

| Host'-ile, unfriendly.

un-dis-put'-ed
un-it'-ed
pop'-u-lar

cler-gy-man
cap'-tur-ed
ab'-sent

ser'-i-ous
in-va'-sion
ne'-pew



LESSON XLII.

THE RISE OF CARDINAL WOLSEY.

It was not so easy in old times as it is now for a poor boy to rise to high rank and power. But there are some remarkable cases of the kind in the History of England, and one of the most famous is that which we are now to notice.

During the events about which we read in the previous Lesson, Henry VIII. had for his chief friend and adviser Cardinal Wolsey. This famous Churchman is said to have been the son of a butcher, and was born at Ipswich, in the county of Suffolk, in the reign of Edward IV. Being fond of learning he was sent at an early age to one of the colleges at Oxford, where he won much success. He then undertook the duties of a teacher in a nobleman's family, and afterwards became a clergyman of the English Church. His talents

brought him to the notice of Henry VII., by whom he was employed on some important business, and rewarded for his work by being made Dean of Lincoln.

Such was the office Wolsey filled when he was presented at the court of Henry VIII. There he did his best to please, and entered so fully into the young King's pleasures, that in a short time he became the royal favourite and adviser. The King made him Archbishop of York and Chancellor of England. The Pope raised him to the rank of Cardinal, which was the highest honour, excepting the Popedom itself, that could then be given to a clergyman.

As Chancellor and Cardinal, Wolsey lived in great splendour. His London residence, called York House, was fit for a king. It afterwards became a royal residence under the name of Whitehall Palace. When he appeared on public occasions, he was followed by hundreds of servants, of whom many were gentlemen of rank. The trappings of his horses and the dresses of his attendants glittered with ornaments of gold and of silver. All this great show, while it roused the jealousy of some of the nobility, pleased the people, because they were glad to see one of lowly birth rank

so high in the service of the Church and of the King. But Wolsey in the midst of all his splendour did not lose his love of learning. He was always ready to help any deserving poor scholar, or any writer of a useful book. He gave a large part of his riches to found a grammar-school in his native town and a large college at Oxford, so that we must reckon him a good friend to education.

Wolsey's favour was courted by the Emperor Charles and Francis, King of France, because each of them hoped to get through him the aid of King Henry. Charles promised to use his influence to make him Pope when a new Pope had to be elected. As Wolsey aspired to this high honour, he favoured the cause of Charles at the English court. But in a while he found that the Emperor did not mean what he said, for since the promise was first made two Popes had been elected. Then Wolsey took up the cause of the King of France, and advised his master to withdraw his friendship from Charles.

· SUMMARY.

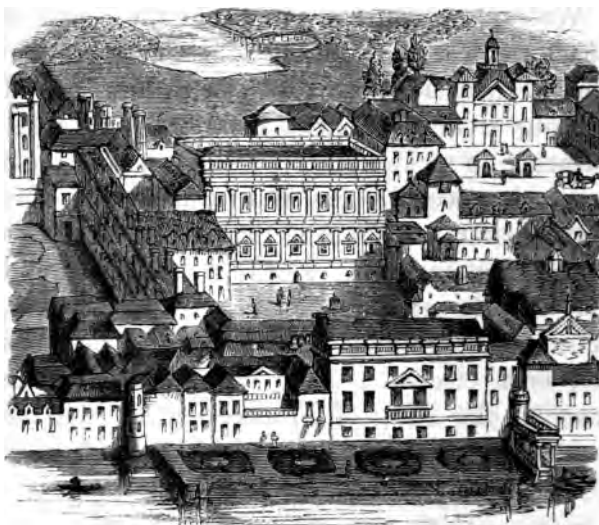
Thomas Wolsey was the son of a tradesman at Ipswich. By industry and talent he came to be a prince of the Church, and chief adviser to Henry VIII. The Emperor, Charles V., nephew

to Queen Catherine, promised to have Wolsey elected Pope ; but he broke his promise, and Wolsey then advised the King to favour France rather than Spain.

re-mark'-a-ble
pre'-vi-ous
but'-cher

bus'-i-ness
chan'-cel-lor
re'-sid-ence

de-serv'-ing
schol'-ar
e-du-ca'-tion



OLD WHITEHALL.

LESSON XLIII.

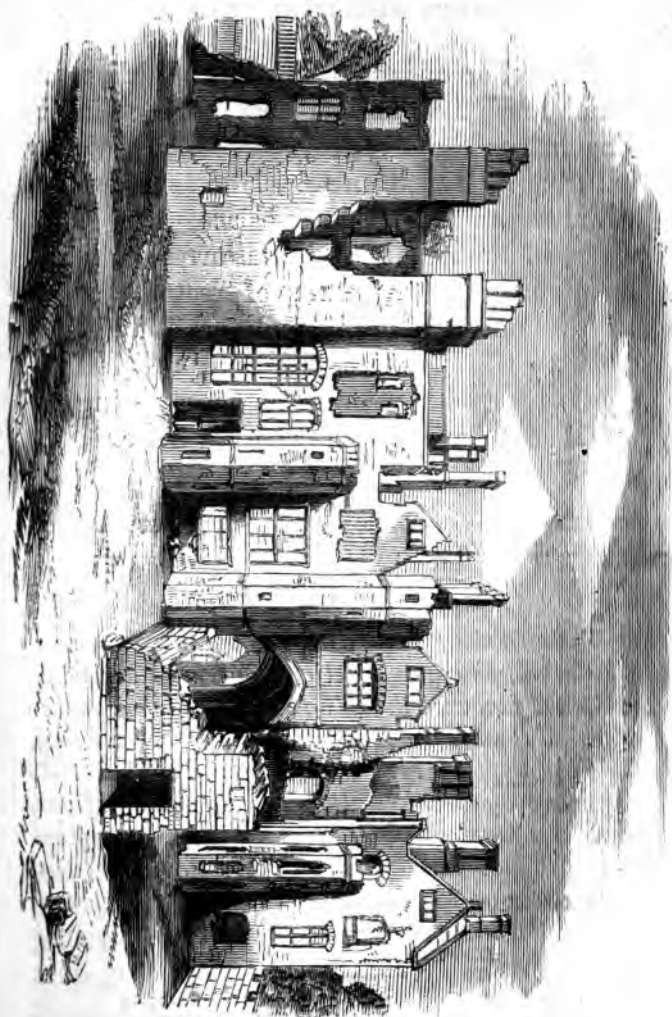
THE FALL OF WOLSEY.

THE change of sides on the part of Wolsey brought about some most important events. Charles V. was the nephew of Queen Catherine, and they were friendly to each other. When Wolsey, then, quarrelled with Charles and took up the French cause, he also quarrelled with the Queen. Now, we must remember who the Queen was before she married Henry VIII. She was the widow of Henry's brother. This relationship gave Wolsey the means of ruining her, and also of troubling her nephew, the Emperor. He put doubts into Henry's mind about the lawfulness of his marriage with his brother's widow, and advised him to put her away, that is to say, divorce her, and marry another lady.

Though Catherine was a pious woman, and had been for eighteen years a devoted wife,

there were some reasons why Henry was willing to listen to the advice of his favourite. He was now a man of middle age, without a son to succeed to the throne. All his children, except a daughter, Mary, had died a few days after birth. He called to mind the Wars of the Roses, and feared that on his death another such dispute might arise, since no woman had ever reigned alone in England. It was only a few years before this that he had put to death one of the great English nobles, who was a descendant of King Edward III., because he had spoken some words about the succession to the throne.

Henry decided to divorce Catherine. He was the more anxious to do so, because he had fallen in love with one of her maids of honour, named Anne Boleyn. He applied to the Pope for a divorce; but the Pope was then in the power of the Emperor Charles, and was afraid to please the King in this matter. But Wolsey and another cardinal were told to hold a court in London to inquire into the whole question. They delayed so long about it, that Henry believed that they and the Pope were fooling him, and his anger was fiercely kindled against *his favourite*. He dismissed him from his post



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of Chancellor, and called together a Parliament, which fined the Cardinal heavily for acting in England as the Pope's judge. Thus Wolsey fell from all his greatness. He was allowed to withdraw to his bishop's palace, near York, where in the next year he was arrested by the King's orders on the charge of treason. On his way to London he fell ill, and died at Leicester Abbey. His last words were, "Had I served my God as well as I have served my King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs."

DATES.

| | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|
| The Divorce question began | 1527 A.D. |
| Death of Wolsey | 1530 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

When Wolsey was offended by the Emperor, Charles V., he began to slight Queen Catherine as well, and favoured the King's desire to take another wife. But when the King decided to put her away, the Pope opposed him, and Wolsey would not do anything against the Pope's judgment. Henry then dismissed Wolsey from his great offices. The Cardinal was afterwards arrested, and died at Leicester on his way to London.

Di-vo-ce, to separate, put away.

de-vot'-ed
suc-ces'-sion

mid'-dle
car'-din-al

fierce-ly
ar-rest'-ed



MARTIN LUTHER.

LESSON XLIV.

MARTIN LUTHER AND THE CHURCH IN GERMANY.

IN the previous two Lessons we have been reading of the doings of Henry VIII. in the earlier part of his reign. While these things were going on in England and France, there was a great stir in Germany about the teaching of the Church and the manners of the clergy. This movement was called the *Reformation*, because it aimed to put away bad customs and wrong teaching, and to *form again*

the Church on a better footing. The German Reformation had much to do with England, and this is the reason why we read about it in this Lesson.

Before printing was found out, about which we read in the Thirty-third Lesson, and when books were few, the clergy chiefly were the learned people. But there were many clergy who knew no more than enough to go through the services of the Church. So in those days of little learning many mistakes were made in Christian teaching, and many customs arose which did much harm to the cause of religion. We learnt in the Twenty-second Lesson how John Wycliff tried to improve the state of religion in England. Now after the invention of printing knowledge spread rapidly, so that people everywhere were able to understand things better, and to think for themselves. The Bible especially became better known, and in the great schools, or colleges of most European countries it was regularly taught. A better knowledge of this Holy Book made scholars wish for a reform in the Church; and we shall see in another Lesson what some Englishmen did to bring such a good thing about in their *own country*.

In Germany there was a great outcry for Church reform under the leadership of Martin Luther, a man very famous in the history of the world. He was the son of a German miner, or slate-cutter. After receiving, through the kindness of his hard-working father, a good education, he became a monk. Shortly afterwards he was made a preacher and teacher at the great school of Wittenberg, in Saxony, and there he was noted for his earnestness in teaching that religion meant holiness of living, and that pardon of sins could not be bought with money. He was a careful reader of the books that by the printing press good men and scholars were scattering abroad, wherein they pointed out the faults of the people and the abuses in the Church. He felt the truth of their statements, and worked earnestly to put matters right.

While Luther was in this mind, men sent by the Pope were going about selling pardons for sin to any who would buy them, either for themselves or on behalf of their dead friends. The fact is, the Pope at that time was in want of money, and he thought this a good plan to get it, because people then believed that he had the power to pardon sins. When some of these

pardoners came to Wittenberg, Luther's blood boiled with anger, and forthwith he began to preach against them with all his might. By so doing he brought down upon his head the anger of the Bishops, and he was called upon to obey at once the authority of the Pope. But he answered that the Bible, as the Word of God, was the chief authority for Christian teaching, and he would follow the lessons of that book. Then the Pope issued a written order, or Bull, as it was called in Italian,* cutting off Luther from the Church, and calling upon the ruler of Saxony to give him up for punishment. But Luther, being a bold and stubborn man, took this document and burnt it in the presence of all the people of the town, and thus showed his open defiance of the Pope.

Luther's opinions were received with favour throughout the whole of Northern Germany. His followers grew so many, that not even the power of the Emperor Charles V. could put them down. While this great religious movement was thus going on, the peasantry in some

* It was so called because of the leaden seals attached to it, and which hung from it like little balls. *Bulla* means a round ornament like a large bead.

parts, who were very poor and badly used, rose in arms against their rulers, and much misery and bloodshed followed. Many leading men, who up to this time had cried out for reform in the Church, were frightened on account of the peasant wars, and drew back from the movement; but it went on in spite of them.

The reformers in Germany were called *Protestant*, because they *protested* against the decrees of a council, held in Germany under the influence of the Emperor, which forbade changes in religion. So there arose in Germany national churches free from the control of the Pope, which were called Protestant, and also Lutheran. Some parts of Germany remained faithful to Rome. Between these and the Lutheran parts there was much ill-feeling, and sometimes war.

Luther's opinions spread to England. Henry VIII. did not like them, and even wrote a book against the German reformer, for which he received from the Pope the title, "Defender of the Faith." We may now see on our money the letters "F. D." after the name of the sovereign. These letters mean "Defender of the Faith." This took place before the great question of the divorce of

Queen Catherine arose. But King Henry could not stop Englishmen from thinking and talking about a reformation. In the next Lesson we shall read what some of them were doing in this matter.

DATF.

Luther burnt the Pope's Bull 1520 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Martin Luther was the son of a miner at Wittenberg, in Germany, and became a monk. When the Pope sent men to sell pardons, Luther preached against them. The Pope issued a "bull" against him, and Luther burned the bull. He soon had many followers, and the Emperor held a council to condemn them. They protested against the council. Hence they were called Protestants. Henry VIII. wrote a book against Luther, and received from the Pope the title of Defender of the Faith.

e-spec'-i-al-ly
re'-form'-a-tion

earn'-est-ness
ab-us'-es

au-thor'-i-ty
o-pin'-i-ons



LESSON XLV.

ENGLAND AND THE NEW LEARNING.—THOMAS
MORE AND ERASMUS.

BEFORE Luther began the reformation in Germany, there were in England, at the great schools of Oxford and Cambridge, men who taught that some change for the better ought to be made in religion. These teachers had brought to England the study of the Greek language; and as the New Testament was first written in that tongue, a knowledge of Greek was useful to a right understanding of that Book. The study of Greek was thus a new thing in our schools, and so it came to be called “the new learning,” and its teachers and scholars “men of the new learning.” The Greek Testament was one of the favourite books of study; and from its sacred pages its readers learnt the religion taught by Jesus Christ and his Apostles.

Among the men of the new learning who were famous in the reign of Henry VIII. two may be mentioned. These were Thomas More and Erasmus.

Thomas More was educated at Oxford in the reign of Henry VII., and was foremost among the band of new scholars in that famous place of learning. He devoted himself to the study of law, and early in life became a man of mark in the London law-courts. By his skill as a lawyer and writer of books, he came under the notice of young Henry VIII., by whom he was employed on business of state. He was made Chancellor of England after the fall of Cardinal Wolsey ; but he soon withdrew from this high office, because he could not agree with all the acts of the King ; and at length he was put to death. More, in his younger days, like most men of the new learning, was in favour of reform in Church and State. He wrote in Latin a famous book called *Utopia*, a word which means "Nowhere," because it is a description of the life of a fanciful country. The name of this book has given a word to our language. We now call a fanciful scheme "Utopian." In this book More wrote strongly *in favour* of freedom of religion and against

religious persecution. In his later years, when he saw the troubles that arose in Germany after Luther's reformation, he became less liberal in his opinions, and wrote much against the Lutherans and the religious books brought into England from Germany. Yet he was even then in favour of letting Englishmen have the Bible in their own mother tongue, and by this opinion he helped the work of reformation in England.

Erasmus was a foreign student, who was at Oxford with Thomas More. In the same year that More wrote his *Utopia*, Erasmus published a Greek Testament with a Latin translation, and his book did more to bring about a religious reformation than any other writings of the time. He wrote in the beginning of this book, "I wish that even the weakest woman should read the Gospels—should read the Epistles of Paul; and I wish that they were translated into all languages, so that they might be read and understood not only by Scots and Irishmen, but also by Turks. I long that the ploughman should sing parts of them to himself as he follows the plough, that the weaver should hum them to the tune of his shuttle, that the traveller should

cheer with their stories the weariness of his journey."

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Henry VIII. the Greek Testament began to be studied in England. Two men who did much to encourage the new study were Sir Thomas More, Chancellor of England after the fall of Wolsey, and Erasmus, a foreign student.

Per-sec-u'-tion, cruel treatment.

law-yer
em-ploy'-ed
de-scrip'-tion

fat'-ci-ful
lib'-er-al
pub'-lish-ed

test'-a-ment
plough'-man
shut'-tle





LESSON XLVI.

WILLIAM TYNDAL AND THE TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE.

THE New Testament of Erasmus was only intended for the use of the learned ; but as it became known, many scholars wished that it could be translated into English for the use of the people. The Bible had been translated

into English by John Wycliff more than a hundred years before, as we read in our Fourteenth Lesson ; but Wycliff's book was translated from a Latin copy, and it had not been printed. Its English, also, was not easy to be understood by the people in the time of Henry VIII., because words had, in the meanwhile, undergone much change.

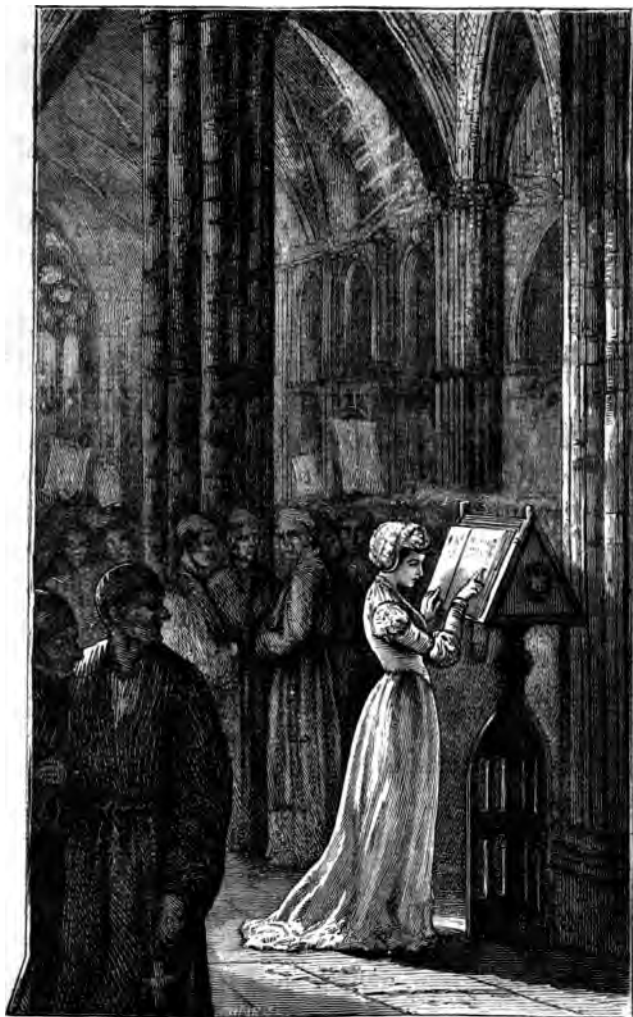
The man who now took up the task of translating the Testament of Erasmus was a clergyman, named William Tyndal. To one of the old-fashioned people, who did not like the new learning, and did not wish to see the Scriptures put into everybody's hands, he said: "If God spare my life, ere many years I will cause a boy, that driveth a plough, shall know more of the Scripture than thou dost."

It was in the early part of the reign of Henry VIII., that Tyndal entered upon his great work. He found, however, that England then was not a safe place to do it in, for Luther was defying the Pope in Germany, and Henry VIII. and his advisers were on the watch to put down Luther's opinions in this country. Tyndal, therefore, went to Germany to finish his translation. After years of toil, of hardship, and of danger, his New Testa-

ment was printed in English, and sent to England in the year 1526 A.D. As the book came from Germany, where Luther's reformation had caused great disorder, even men of the new learning in England, like Sir Thomas More, looked upon it as a Lutheran work, and spoke against it, because they were afraid that England might be troubled like Germany was. So the copies of the book were seized and burnt, and the persons upon whom they had been found were obliged to walk round about the fire and throw in wood to feed the flames.

But this did not stop the New Testament from coming into the country. Copies of it, and also other books, were smuggled into England by merchants and others. Four years after Tyndal had printed the New Testament he printed the Old Testament in English, and the two books were secretly sold throughout the country. In the great schools at Oxford and Cambridge groups of scholars met privately to read and talk over the Scripture truths which had thus been brought to light.

Ten years after the first printing of the English New Testament, Tyndal was burnt as a heretic near Brussels, the chief town of modern Belgium, which was then under the



rule of Spain. By this time another Englishman had translated the Bible, and as Henry VIII. had quarrelled with the Pope, he ordered an English Bible to be placed in every parish church for the use of all who could read. In this way Scripture knowledge was spread throughout the land. The accompanying illustration shows how people collected in the churches to hear and read the Bible.

William Tyndal's name should be held in honour, because he spent his life, and at last died at the stake, in the cause of the religious instruction of his own countrymen.

DATES.

| | |
|--|-------------|
| The Greek Testament of Erasmus printed | . 1516 A.D. |
| Tyndal's English New Testament printed | . 1526 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Henry VIII. William Tyndal made a new translation of the Bible into English. He did the work in Germany, because it was not safe for him to do it in England. When the first copies came over they were burnt; but people eagerly sought after others. Tyndal himself was burnt at Brussels, but his work could not die.

de-fy'-ing
fin'-ish

dis-or'-der
seiz-ed

smug'-gled'
ac-com'-pa-ny

LESSON XLVII.

ENGLAND DECLARED INDEPENDENT OF THE POPE.

THE reign of Henry VIII. is especially famous for the deliverance of England from the control of the Pope. We learnt in the earlier Lessons how the Pope, as the Bishop of the ancient city of Rome, came in the course of time to be regarded as the head bishop in all but the eastern countries of Europe. He claimed to have power over all churches, to tax the clergy, to decide all disputes among them, and to direct what they ought to teach. His right to tax the clergy had often been denied in England, as we read in the reigns of Henry III. and Edward III.; but until the days of John Wycliff no one in this country disputed his teaching. In the Forty-fourth and Forty-sixth Lessons we saw that the opinions of people in Germany and this country were undergoing a great change about the claims *and the power* of the Pope.

The Pope now lost his hold upon England, because he refused to grant the King a divorce from his wife, Catherine of Arragon. Why Henry VIII. wished for the divorce we have learnt in the lesson about Cardinal Wolsey. Nearly all the great men of England were of the same mind as the King, and were as angry as he was when the Pope let one year after another slip by without settling the divorce question. So in the same year that Wolsey fell into disgrace a Parliament was called together, which supported Henry's plans most heartily. It passed laws forbidding the clergy to pay money to the Pope, or to carry their disputes to the courts in Rome. It decided that the English courts were the proper places for the trial of questions that had to do with the Church of England. It also said that there ought not to be any power in England above the King's. In this way the English people showed their determination to free themselves from foreign interference.

At last, after years of waiting for a favourable answer from the Pope about the divorce, Henry settled the matter for himself by privately marrying Anne Boleyn. In the same year Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury,

pronounced the marriage with Catherine unlawful, because it was, he said, contrary to Holy Scripture. Cranmer's decision was also supported by an Act of Parliament. When the Pope heard of these things he excommunicated Henry, that is to say, he cut him off from church membership. But this act of the Pope made the whole of England furious. Even the clergy, in their great meeting called Convocation, said that the Bishop of Rome had no authority in England, nor had any other foreign bishop. Then Parliament passed an Act which made the King supreme in England in Church affairs, as well as in all other matters; and thus England, like Northern Germany, freed itself from the Pope, 1534 A.D.

The teaching of the Church of England remained much the same as before, and heretics were still burned. But great changes in other ways followed. The English Bible was allowed to be used in churches; and the clergy were told to advise the people to read it. And towards the end of the reign some of the prayers in the Church Service were said in English. Up to this time all the prayers had been said in Latin, which the unlearned people, of course, could *not* understand.

But the greatest change of all was the destruction of the homes of the monks and nuns.



RUINS OF TINTERN ABBEY.

There were in England some thousands of such religious houses, called monasteries, and many of them were very rich. A great deal of the

land of the country belonged to them. The monks had long been out of favour, and early in the reign some of their houses were closed by Cardinal Wolsey. Parliament now decided to pull down all the monasteries and turn their inmates adrift. This was accordingly done. With a portion of the property six new bishoprics were made and a few schools and hospitals founded; but most of the lands were sold at a low price and the money wasted. The court favourites got a very fair share of the monastic property. In several parts of England the ruins of some of the monasteries are still standing, and show how beautiful many of those houses were, as Tintern Abbey, near Chepstow, and Fountains' Abbey, in Yorkshire.

Changes like these did not please every one. There were riots in some parts of the country; but the King was able to put them down without much trouble, because he had most of the people on his side. Henry was too stern a prince to allow any one to thwart his wishes, and he showed no mercy to those who angered him. Two of the six wives that he had in succession were put to death, and several of his advisers met with a like fate. These

are blots on his fame ; but it must be said that England was then passing through a most trying time in her history, and her rulers were less merciful than those in our day are. We, however, must remember that the changes effected in this reign were made by the nation through Parliament.

DATES.

| | | |
|--|---------|------|
| England freed from the Pope . . . | 1534 | A.D. |
| The English Bible placed in churches . . | 1536 | A.D. |
| The monasteries pulled down . . . | 1536—39 | A.D. |

SUMMARY.

As the Pope would not divorce Queen Catherine, Henry VIII. resolved to allow him no more power in England. Parliament passed laws forbidding any clergyman to pay money to the Pope, or to take any notice of him. Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, declared the King free from his wife, and Henry then married Anne Boleyn. The monasteries were shut up by Act of Parliament, and their property given to the King to use for other purposes.

de-liv'-er-ance
an'-cient
set'-tling

dis-grace'
ques'-tion
for'-eign

in-ter-fer'-ence
fur'-i-ous
mon'-as-ter-ies

LESSON XLVIII.

EDWARD VI. (1547 A.D.—1553 A.D.) THE
ENGLISH REFORMATION.

HENRY VIII. left behind him one son and two daughters ; and each in turn became sovereign of England. These children were the offspring of different mothers, and their names were Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth. Mary was the child of Catherine of Arragon ; Elizabeth's mother was Anne Boleyn ; and Edward was the son of Jane Seymour, his father's third wife.

Edward VI. was only nine years old when he became King. The country was governed by a council of the great men of the land, among whom the young King's uncle, the Duke of Somerset, held the chief place. Edward was a boy very fond of learning. He could read the Bible both in Greek and in Latin, *and he loved to study its sacred pages.* He

therefore favoured the spread of Scripture teaching and the changes which took place in religion during his short reign of six years. Under him the Reformation of the English Church was carried out. The Duke of Somerset and the greater part of the council were in favour of reform in the manner of worship and the teaching of the Church.

After England had freed herself from the Pope under Henry VIII., a large portion of the English people had been led, by reading the Bible and other books, to wish for simpler ways of divine worship, and more Bible-teaching than the Church then had. Besides, the teaching of the Lollards, about whom we read in the Lesson upon John Wycliff, had never ceased in England, so that in many parts of the country the people were ready to make religious changes. As long as Henry VIII. lived, the people, who wanted such reforms, had little chance of having their wishes fulfilled, because the King was sternly against them. But now that he was dead, and that the friends of reformation were at the head of the Government, the long-desired changes were made without delay.

If we could have entered a church in the

time of Henry VIII. we should have seen there stained-glass windows, images of Jesus Christ and his apostles, and walls painted with pictures of the gospel history and of the stories of saints. We should also have seen the clergy, dressed in robes of different colours, decked with gold and silver ornaments, standing before a richly adorned altar lighted with many candles. We should have heard the prayers and hymns read and sung in Latin, and many things taught about which we do not read in the Bible. There were many other customs and arrangements that had grown into use in the course of time, and which cannot be told in this Lesson.

Now during the reign of Edward VI. most of these things were changed. The painted windows were removed, the images taken down, and the walls carefully whitewashed to hide the pictured stories. The clergy were dressed in a simple white garment, and nearly all the ornaments of the altar, or Lord's Table, as it was then called, were taken away. The prayers were said in English out of the Common Prayer Book, which had been drawn up for public worship, and the English Bible only was read *at the services*. Such were some of the changes

wrought by what is called the English Reformation.

The work of Church reform was carried out under the direction of Archbishop Cranmer. Some of the great men in the land did not like the change, neither did the people in many country places; but in most of the towns and large villages the Reformation was well received. Never in our history did England pass through such a trial as it did at this time. No great change in a nation can ever be made without some of the people being discontented, and so it was now. There were risings of the people in some parts, because work was scarce, and there were no monasteries from which to get a little help. Workhouses for the poor were not yet built. So the half-starved labourers were easily persuaded that all their troubles came from the religious changes, and that they had better try to get them undone. Their risings were sternly put down, and no mercy was shown to their leaders.

Edward VI. was so delicate in health that no one expected that he would live to be a man. There was in the royal council a bold bad man, called the Duke of Northumberland, who made a scheme to get the crown into his

own family after the young King's death. He had already managed to get the Duke of Somerset put to death, and so his plans seemed certain of success. There was a young lady living who was the grand-daughter of Mary, the youngest sister of Henry VIII. Her name was Lady Jane Grey. The Duke of Northumberland married one of his sons to this lady, and then persuaded the King to leave the crown to her, because if his sister Mary ascended the throne she would undo the Reformation. So Edward passed over the claims of his two sisters in favour of Lady Jane, and in this he was supported by the chief of the nobility, though most of them gave their consent from fear of Northumberland. This act of the King and nobles was unlawful, because the right of settling who should be the sovereign of England belonged to the Parliament. But Northumberland's scheme failed, as we shall see in the next Lesson.

Soon after this Edward VI. died. He was then under the care of Northumberland, and the rumour went abroad that the Earl had hastened the young King's death by *poison*.

DATES.

The first Book of Common Prayer published . 1549 A.D.

The English Reformation completed . 1549 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Edward VI. was a sickly child, and the nation in his reign was governed by a council. The Reformation was carried farther. The Book of Common Prayer was drawn up in English, and the churches were altered to suit Protestant feeling. The Duke of Northumberland made Edward leave the crown to Lady Jane Grey, grand-niece to Henry VIII., and then the Duke married his own son to her. But Edward had no right to make such a will.

por'-tion
wor-ship

dif'-fer-ent
orn'-a-ments

ar-range'-ments
gar'-ment



LESSON XLIX.

MARY I. (1553 A.D.—1558 A.D.).—THE POPE'S
POWER AGAIN SET UP IN ENGLAND.

ON the death of Edward VI. the Duke of Northumberland set up Lady Jane Grey as queen, much against her own will. But most of the nobles and people favoured the cause of the Princess Mary, and in less than a fortnight she was firmly seated on the throne, being the first woman in our history to reign in her own right. Lady Jane and her friends were sent to the Tower, and the schemer Northumberland was put to death on the scaffold.

Mary, as the daughter of Catherine of Arragon, was warmly attached to her mother's religion. She was strongly opposed to the changes in the Church which had been made in her brother's reign, and she resolved to undo them all, and also set up again in England the Papal power, *which* her father had got rid of. The bishops

who had favoured the Reformation were sent to prison, and their places were filled by bishops whom Edward VI. had removed. In many churches the clergy put away the English Bible and the Book of Common Prayer, and restored the old forms of service, without waiting for the consent of Parliament. Many of the Reformers left England for Germany, because they expected to be punished for their doings if they remained in this country.

When Parliament met it undid all the religious reforms that had been made by the Parliaments of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. ; so that the Latin service was heard again in every church in the land. Next year the two Houses of Parliament voted an address to the Pope, in which they asked pardon for what the nation had done in the previous reigns, and begged to be taken again into friendship. A special messenger from the Pope came to England to accept their petition, and from him the members of the two Houses on bended knees received forgiveness, and were placed again under the Papal authority. The monasteries, however, could not be raised again, and the nobles and gentry took care to keep the monastic lands that had fallen to their share.

Some months before Parliament received the Pope's pardon a very serious rising, which at one time threatened the Queen's ruin, took place in Kent. It was caused by Mary's intended marriage with Philip, son of the Emperor Charles V. and heir to the kingdom of Spain. The Spaniards were much disliked by Englishmen, and as their country was then the most powerful in Europe, many of the leading men of England were afraid that the marriage of their Queen with a Spanish prince would end in making this island a part of the kingdom of Spain. So plots were made in many parts of the country to prevent the Spanish match taking place. The men of Kent rose in arms and forced their way into London; but the nobles kept aloof, and the movement failed. The leader and many of his followers were put to death.

This rising cost the lives of Lady Jane Grey and her husband. Her father also was condemned as one of the plotters. The three were sent to the block, and the nobility and gentry who were thought to be unfriendly to Mary were put in prison. The Princess Elizabeth, though innocent of any share in the *rising*, barely escaped execution. The Spanish

party in England wished to put her out of the way, because they were afraid that she might



PLACE OF EXECUTION, TOWER OF LONDON.

some day be the means of upsetting their plans; but Queen Mary would not agree to such a murder.

The failure of the Kentish rising and the executions which followed strengthened Mary's power. The marriage with Philip took place a few months afterwards, but it did not prove a happy one. Philip had no love for his wife, neither did he care much for England, except to use its power in aid of Spain. He remained in this country less than a year; but during that time the Queen and her advisers began a fierce persecution of the Reformers. We shall read about these cruel deeds in the next Lesson.

Philip persuaded Mary to join Spain in a war against France. In this war Calais was taken from the English by the French, and thus England lost the only place in France left to it from all its conquests in that country. It was first captured by Edward III. after the famous battle of Crecy, and for two hundred years had been under the English flag. So valuable was it thought to be, that it was called "the brightest jewel of the English crown."

DATES.

| | |
|--|-----------|
| The Pope's power in England restored . . . | 1554 A.D. |
| Loss of Calais | 1558 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

When Edward VI. died, the people would not

have Lady Jane Grey as Queen. Mary, eldest daughter of Henry VIII., came to the throne. She changed the church services back again to the old forms, and the Parliament asked pardon of the Pope. The Queen married Philip of Spain, and this caused riots and disorder. Mary caused Lady Jane and her husband to be beheaded. She joined her husband in a war against France, and lost the town of Calais.

Schem'-er, one who makes | **A-loof'**, away, apart.
 schemes, a cunning man. |

princ'-ess
fort'-night
scaf'-fold

at-tach'-ed
ad-dress'
mes'-sen-ger

mon-as'-tic
in'-noc-ent
strength'-en-ed



LESSON L.

THE MARTYRS OF THE REFORMATION.

THE rising of the men of Kent shows that the friends of the Reformation were numerous. Though crushed by the Queen's power the Reformers were not idle with their pens. They annoyed the Government with their tracts and ballads, in which they mocked some of the most sacred acts of the restored religion. The Queen, being determined to uproot the Protestant teaching in her kingdom, influenced Parliament to bring back the laws against the Lollards, which had been done away with in her brother's reign; and then she called upon the bishops to put these laws in force against all persons who would not accept her religion.

The persecution began after Mary had been a year and a half on the throne, and lasted till her death. The persons who suffered were called *martyrs*, a word which means "wit-

nesses;" and they were so named because



MARTYRS' MEMORIAL AT OXFORD.

they bore *witness* by their sufferings to what they believed to be true. Death by burning

was the cruel punishment given to the Reformers. Five of Edward VI.'s bishops met



OLD SMITHFIELD, LONDON.

with this fate, besides a crowd of lesser clergy and other people. In the city of Oxford two *well-known* bishops, Ridley, of London, and

Latimer, of Worcester, were burnt before one of the chief colleges. As they stood near each other at the stake, and when the flames began to crackle, the aged Latimer shouted to his brother martyr, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley! Play the man! We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as, I trust, shall never be put out."

Such faith as Latimer's comforted men in the bitterest sufferings. Death had no terror for them; indeed, they seemed to have courage and strength more than human. One of Mary's bishops asked a youth charged with being a Protestant whether he thought he could bear the fire. The boy at once put his hand into the flame of a candle and held it there without flinching. A famous preacher died at the stake bathing his hands in the flames as if they had been cold water. Another aged clergyman went to his place of martyrdom leaping and dancing, though he had just parted from his wife and children.

Archbishop Cranmer was marked out for special vengeance. He it was who gave the sentence of divorce between Henry VIII. and Catherine of Arragon, and he was looked upon as the leading spirit of the Reformation. For

more than eighteen months he was kept in prison, and during that time promises were held out to him that he might save his life by giving up his religious opinions. In a moment of weakness he agreed to do this; but when he saw that he was marked out for death, he said that fear had made him pretend to have changed his views, and he was sorry for his weakness. He was burnt at Oxford on the same spot where Bishops Ridley and Latimer died.

During the Marian persecution nearly three hundred persons suffered at the stake, besides those who were punished in other ways. The prisons belonging to the bishops were crowded with men and women. "They were beaten, they were starved, they were flung into dark, stinking dens, where rotting straw was their bed; their feet were fettered in the stocks, and their clothes were their only covering in the cold winter months; while the wretches who died in their misery were flung out into the fields where none might bury them."

These cruelties did more to help the cause of the Reformation than hundreds of sermons. The people's hearts were touched at the sight of *burning men*, and they drew back from a

religion which could allow such cruel deeds. "God save thee; God strengthen thee and help thee; the Holy Ghost comfort thee!" said a crowd of people when they saw an aged martyr going to the stake. With such feelings of pity many sight-seers went to their homes, and thought favourably of a religion which could give men courage and strength to defy the horrors of the stake. Mary, however, thought she was giving the death-blow to religious reform, when in truth she was adding to its life. After her death this was proved; for her religion was again forced to give way to the Reformation.

DATES.

| | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|-----------|
| Beginning of the Marian persecution | . | . | 1555 A.D. |
| Archbishop Cranmer burnt at Oxford | . | . | 1556 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

In the reign of Mary many persons were burnt for their religion, and amongst them Bishops Ridley and Latimer, also Archbishop Cranmer. But instead of making people more Roman Catholic, this persecution made them less so.

Bal'-lads, stories in song.

i'-dle
an-noy-ed
mar'-tyr

wit'-ness
ter'-ror
flinch'-ing

ven'-ge-ance
fet'-tered
mis'-er-y



LESSON LI.

ELIZABETH (1558 A.D.—1603 A.D.).—THE RE-
FORMED RELIGION RESTORED.

ELIZABETH, the daughter of Anne Boleyn
succeeded her sister Mary on the throne. I

London great joy was shown by the people on her accession, because she was known to be in favour of the Reformation. She made choice of cautious and wise men to assist her with their advice, and for this reason her long reign was glorious in its success. Her first measures were in favour of the reformed religion. She set free from prison all who had been put there for their religious opinions, and she invited the reformers who had left England after the death of Edward VI. to return. She ordered certain of the Church prayers and the Gospels to be used in English, and called a Parliament to decide in a lawful manner what further religious changes were to be made.

The nation was plainly tired of the doings of Mary's short reign, for it now sent members to Parliament, who upset all that the previous Parliament had done. The Pope's power in England was once more destroyed, and the Crown made the chief authority in all causes, as settled in the reign of Henry VIII. The Book of Common Prayer, published under Edward VI., was again ordered to be used in Divine Service, and all religious matters were brought into the same state as in that King's reign. A law was also passed forbidding the

clergy to hold any form of public worship other than that directed in the Book of Common Prayer, and a court called the High Commission was formed to manage Church matters.

Thus the reformed worship was set up again in England, and the work of Mary vanished away. In the towns and seaports the change was welcomed with the wildest joy ; but in the country districts, where the people were more ignorant, reform met with little favour.

Only one of Mary's bishops agreed to acknowledge Elizabeth as supreme head in England in all causes. The rest were therefore removed from their sees. Five of Edward's bishops were still alive ; so by their help the Queen was able to give to the Church as many bishops as were wanted.

For eleven years the friends and foes of the Reformation met together for public worship in the parish churches. The Pope, and King Philip of Spain, the husband of the late Queen, hoped that Elizabeth might be brought to change her mind in religious matters if she were left alone. But when eleven years had passed away without any sign of such a change, the Pope issued a Bull of *Excommunication* against her, and then all the Roman

Catholics, as the friends of the Pope were called, refused to attend the parish churches any longer.

For several years England was much troubled by Roman Catholic plots both at home and abroad. We shall read presently how the Pope and the King of Spain aimed in every possible way to dethrone Elizabeth, and how their friends abroad tried to stir up revolts in this country against her. For this reason very severe laws were made against Roman Catholics, and especially against foreign priests who came without leave into England. Many of these were put to death.

SUMMARY.

Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. When she became Queen she favoured the Reformation; and she called a Parliament, which altered church arrangements back again to what they were under Edward VI. For eleven years the Romanists and Protestants met in the churches. Then the Pope cut off the Queen from the Church, and the Roman Catholics separated themselves.

ac-cēs'-sion
caut'-i-ous

des-try'-ed
com-mis'-sion

van'-ish-ed
ig'-nor-ant

LESSON LII.

SCOTTISH REFORMATION.—RISE OF THE PURITANS.

SCOTLAND, like England, had reformed its religion, and had passed through much trouble in doing it. The leader of the reform movement in Scotland was a clergyman named John Knox, whose fame in that country was as great as Luther's in Germany. The Scottish Government and bishops did not encourage the Reformation in their country; but Knox made up his mind to do without bishops, and place the church chiefly under the rule of the *presbyters*, or parish clergy. For this reason the religion set up in Scotland was called *Presbyterian*.

Now there were a few people in England, but not very many at that time, who would have wished the Reformation in their own country to have been carried out as it had been in Scotland. In the Twenty-second Lesson we read of

the Lollards. It is likely that through all the time since the persecution of the Lollards there had been a remnant left here and there in the country, who preserved their simple and earnest religion. When the Reformation began, these people were encouraged to speak out more boldly, and they found others to join with them. Hence arose a party of reformers who were not content with what was done in England.

Before the friends of the Pope withdrew from the parish churches there was an outcry in many places that the changes already made were not enough. The people who said this were called *Puritans*, because they wanted a simpler and purer worship than what they found in the National Church. In the reign of Mary some hundreds of persons fled away to Germany and other places to escape from her persecution, and there they learnt the teaching and customs of the foreign reformers. So they came back to England filled with the desire to make the English Church like those foreign churches. And as they had been driven from their homes by Queen Mary's religion, they naturally disliked to see anything in public worship which

brought that religion to their minds. So they objected, amongst other things, to the white dress which the clergy wore in Divine Service; to bishops; and to organs and chanting. In some cases they refused to attend church services, and held their meetings in private houses. Many of the clergy became Puritans, and would not conform—that is to say, agree—to the act which regulated public worship. For this reason such Puritans received the name of *Nonconformists*. But the Government of Elizabeth did not allow the Puritans to do as they pleased without punishing them. The law required them to attend their parish church, and when they broke the law they were fined or sent to prison, and in some cases sent out of the country. In those days people had not learnt to put up with each other's opinions, and the Government then thought it right to settle what the religion of the people should be, and make them attend to it.

The Puritans increased rapidly in numbers, and towards the end of the reign formed a strong party in the House of Commons.

DATE.

*The Roman Catholics withdraw from the Church of
England. 1570 A.D.*

SUMMARY.

In Scotland the Reformation was carried farther than in England. There were some people in England who wished to imitate the Scottish Reformation. These people were called Puritans. During this reign they increased in number.

en-cour'-age
cus'-toms

na'-tur-al-ly
or'-gans

set'-tle
rap'-id-ly



BANISHED PURITANS.

LESSON LIII.

MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY, Queen of Scots, had much to do with English affairs in the reign of Elizabeth. She was the granddaughter of the elder daughter of Henry VII. of England, Margaret, who had married the King of Scotland. We read about this marriage in the Thirty-sixth Lesson. If Elizabeth, therefore, died without children, the Scottish Queen had by birth the best right to succeed her.

Mary was reared at the French Court, and married the heir to the French Crown. When Elizabeth ascended the English throne, Mary, who was a Roman Catholic, would not acknowledge her as the lawful Queen, and she and her husband called ⁴themselves the Sovereigns of England. This conduct was an insult to Elizabeth, and made most Englishmen very angry. They regarded Mary as a

dangerous enemy to the peace of their country, and when her husband became King of France they were more afraid of her, because she might have the power of France to support her claims. The King of France, however, soon died, and then Mary returned to Scotland, where her mother, as Regent, had been ruling for some years.

Mary did not find Scotland a pleasant place to live in. She did not like its religion, or the rough ways of its people. She hoped some day to become Queen of England, and then she would upset the religious changes that had been made in both countries, and by force of law make the Roman Catholic faith the religion of the land. To make her chances surer she married her cousin, Lord Darnley, who was the grandson, by a second marriage, of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. By birth he was the next heir to the crown of England after the Queen of Scots. But Darnley was an English subject, and his marriage with Mary gave great offence to Elizabeth, because she saw in the union some plot against herself. Elizabeth, however, might have thwarted their schemes by taking a husband herself, but this she would not do.

Mary's marriage with Darnley turned out

an unhappy one. After a while he became jealous of his wife's private secretary, and plotted with some Scotch lords to kill him. The murder was brutally committed almost under the eyes of the Queen, who never forgave her husband for the crime. Soon after this Darnley fell ill, and was placed in a lonely house just outside the town of Edinburgh. One night, after his wife had left the house to go to her palace, the people of Edinburgh were startled by the sound of an explosion. In the morning they found the house where Darnley had lain ill a heap of ruins, and his body lying dead in the garden. Suspicion fell upon a young nobleman called the Earl of Bothwell, who was very friendly with the Queen of Scots; and when a month later the two were married, the people at once said she and Bothwell were the murderers of Darnley. The Scots rose in arms and placed her as a prisoner in Lochleven Castle, where she was obliged to give up the crown in favour of her infant son, who was then called James VI. Bothwell escaped capture, and left the country never to return again.

Mary's winning ways and beauty won many *persons to her cause*. Through their help she

made her escape from Lochleven, and was soon at the head of a large force. But her army was defeated near Glasgow, and then she sought safety in England. Her arrival in this country placed Elizabeth in great difficulty. Mary was heiress to the English crown, and a Roman Catholic. She could not be allowed to visit the English court with the charge of the murder of Darnley against her, for then great offence would be given to the Scottish people. And she could not be allowed to go where she pleased, for then she would become the centre of plots against the Government and religion of England. So Elizabeth decided to keep her under safe guard in England.

During the nineteen years that Mary remained in this country many plots were made to set her free and put her on the English throne. Several of the leading English nobles were put to death for sharing in such schemes. The Roman Catholics in France and Spain wished to destroy the Reformation in this and other countries. They plotted to murder Elizabeth and to send a Spanish army into England. Some Englishmen joined the plot and secretly persuaded the Queen of Scots to take part in the scheme. The whole affair

was found out, and then the captive Queen was brought to trial for her share in it. She was declared guilty, and sentenced to be put to death. After some months' hesitation Elizabeth signed the death-warrant, and the unfortunate Scottish Queen was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire. How the Spaniards failed in their attempt to conquer England must be told in the next Lesson.

DATE.

Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots . . . 1587 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Mary Queen of Scots was the grand-daughter of James IV. of Scotland, and Margaret of England. She did not agree with the Scottish Reformation. She married Lord Darnley, who was also descended from Margaret of England, and their son was James VI. of Scotland. The Scotch rebelled against Mary, and she escaped to England, where, after being a prisoner nineteen years, she was beheaded.

Thwart, to disturb, to hinder.

Se'-cret-a-ry, one who minds
writing business for
others.

af-fairs'
mar'-ri-age
ac-know'-ledge

in'-sult
pleas'-ant
cous'-in

un'-i-on
pris'-on-er
tri-al



LESSON LIV.

THE SPANISH ARMADA.

IN the previous Lesson we read how England was in danger from the plots of the enemies of the Reformation, both at home and abroad. After the failure of many schemes the King of Spain resolved to make an attempt to conquer our island and add it to his empire. Spain was then under the rule of Philip II, who had been the husband of Mary I., Queen of

England. His empire was the most powerful in the world. In Europe he ruled Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, and a large part of Italy; and in Asia and America the countries under his sway were large and rich. His armies were brave, and the largest to be found anywhere; and his numerous ships of war were famous for their immense size. Such was the empire that was now gathering its strength for the invasion of our country.

Philip had causes of complaint against England. Queen Elizabeth had allowed English soldiers to aid the people of the Netherlands, who were fighting to be free from the Spanish rule; and English sailors never ceased to make war against the Spanish ships laden with treasures from Asia or America. These deeds of the English spurred Philip to hurry on his plans to set free Mary Queen of Scots, marry her to one of his great lords, and appoint her and her husband rulers of Great Britain under him. The death of the Queen of Scots, however, spoiled one part of his scheme; but it did not hinder his attempt to conquer England.

In the same year that the Scottish Queen *lost her head*, the chief towns and ports of *Spain* were busy from morning to night prepar-

ing arms and ships for the intended invasion. In the churches of Spain the clergy called upon the people to help on the war against Protestant England with all their might. There was scarcely a noble family in the land that did not send one or more of its sons to join so pious an undertaking as the destruction of the English Reformed Church. Very soon there was collected in Spain such a fleet as the world had never seen. The Spaniards called it the "Invincible Armada," because they thought that no power could overcome it. In that great fleet there were one hundred and thirty fighting ships, of which many were very large. Their crews numbered eight thousand souls, and the soldiers on board amounted to about twenty thousand. There were, besides, hundreds of priests for church work in England, and many thumb-screws and other machines of torture to use in the conversion of the English to the papal religion. King Philip ordered the commander of the Armada to sail direct to Calais, to receive on board an army of thirty thousand men under the leadership of the most skilful soldier of the time.

SUMMARY.

After the death of Mary Queen of Scots, Philip

of Spain resolved to make a great effort to conquer England for the Pope. He gathered a great fleet, called the "Invincible Armada," and ordered it to sail first to Calais to take on board an army there.

Ar-ma'-da, an armed fleet.

em'-pire
fail'-ure

treas'-ures
spur'-red

at-tempt'
fam'-i-ly



LESSON LV.

DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

To meet the immense preparations of the Spaniards, England had but few ships of any great strength. She was not then mistress of the seas as she is now. Her royal navy could only muster about thirty-eight vessels, and most of these were small in size. But this number of fighting ships was increased by craft of all sorts, which the seaports and gentry supplied. Though the English ships were small in size and few in number, they were manned by daring sailors, and commanded by captains whose names had often rung in Spanish ears.

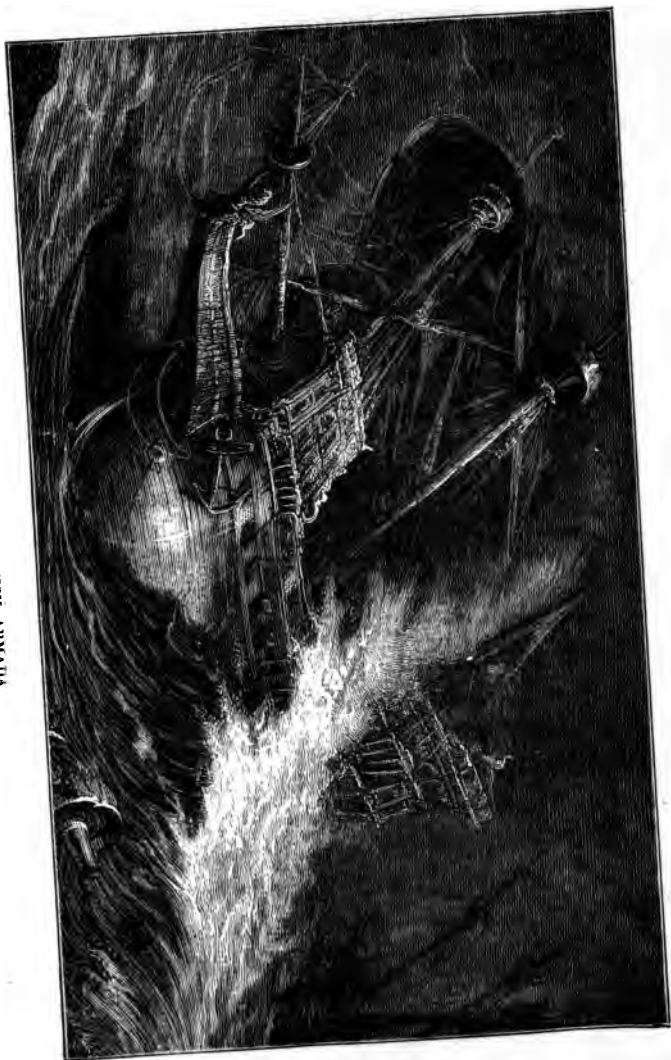
On land an army of seventy thousand men was collected, but they were not drilled soldiers like the Spanish forces. The Queen did her best to encourage her troops. She rode on horseback into the camp near London, and

called upon the men to remember their duty, saying that she, though a woman, would lead them to battle, and die rather than yield.

On an afternoon of a summer's day, in the month of July, 1588 A.D., the English Admiral saw from Plymouth the ships of the Armada sailing eastward up the English Channel. The Spanish fleet was spread out in the form of a crescent about seven miles wide from point to point. The vessels seemed like great floating castles, cumbrous and slow of motion. As they passed onwards the English ships followed to harass them as best they could, and cut off stragglers. The small size of the English vessels was now in their favour. They were light, swift, easily-handled, and could attack the unwieldy Spaniards when and how they pleased. A running fight was kept up during the three days' sail up Channel, and before the Spaniards anchored off Calais several of their greatest ships had been carried as prizes into English ports, or had gone to the bottom of the sea.

While the Armada was lying off Calais, *waiting* for the Spanish army to come on *board*, the English Admiral took six of his

SHIP OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.



worst ships, set them on fire at night, and sent them against the enemy. The Spaniards, in terror of the fire-ships, cut their cables, and sailed out into the Channel, dashing against each other in the confusion. In the early morning light the English came down upon them, and a fierce battle raged throughout that day. Twelve Spanish ships were sunk or captured; many were seriously crippled, and only escaped destruction by the failure of powder and shot in the English fleet. The remains of the Armada were pursued into the North Sea, and forced to sail homewards round the north of Scotland. During this voyage the Spaniards suffered much from storms, and only about one-third of the fleet ever reached Spain.

Thus England, by the daring and bravery of her sailors, escaped the greatest danger that ever threatened her. After the failure of the Armada Elizabeth had nothing to fear from her enemies. During the remainder of her reign England's power grew stronger year by year, while on the other hand the might of Spain grew less and less. Commerce now increased, learning spread, and famous books *were written*; so that Elizabeth's reign, in

spite of its troubles and dangers, was, on the whole, a glorious one.

DATE.

Defeat of the Spanish Armada . . . 1588 A.D.

SUMMARY.

Against the hundred and thirty ships of the Spanish Armada the English had only thirty-eight. On land an army of seventy thousand was ready. In July, 1588, the Armada passed up the Channel. The English ships followed and harassed them when they got the chance. At Calais they sent fire ships among the Spaniards. The Armada tried to get away by the North Sea. but was much shattered by a storm.

im-mense'
in-creas'ed

an'-chor-ed
ad'-mir-al

crip-pled
suf'-fer-ed



LESSON LVI.

COMMERCE AND ENGLISH NAVAL ADVENTURE UNDER ELIZABETH.

COMMERCE made much progress in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Woollen goods were still the chief articles of trade, and much traffic in this business was carried on, as of old, with Flanders, where merchants from all parts of Europe met at fixed times to buy and sell. The discoveries of new lands in the previous reigns, of which we read in the Twenty-fifth Lesson, helped the growth of commerce. Silks and spices from India and the islands of Asia ; gold and ivory from Africa ; and some of the produce of the new world beyond the Atlantic Ocean were largely brought to this country. London, Bristol, and Norwich were the three largest towns in the kingdom. Our present large towns in the middle and north of England were then very small places.

The success of the Spaniards and Portuguese *in planting* their countrymen in America, and

opening out a rich trade with that new land, led many daring Englishmen to follow their example. The spirit of enterprise thus aroused is a marked feature in the life of England under Elizabeth. In her sister Mary's time a number of merchants and nobles fitted out three ships to find a passage to India round the north of Europe. Two of the vessels with their crews were lost in the ice, but the third made its way into the White Sea and reached Archangel, in Russia, thus laying the foundation of our trade with that country. But it was in Elizabeth's reign that English naval adventure became so strongly marked for its rapid growth and singular daring.

Rumours spread in all the seats of trade that gold in plenty was to be found in America, and that Spanish ships were always crossing the seas laden with the rich spoils of that new world. So the news that fortunes were to be made over the sea led merchants and gentry to form companies and fit out ships for voyages of discovery and adventure. The seamen who were placed in charge were for the most part no better than pirates, according to our notions. Their object was to get treasure, and if a richly laden foreign

ship fell in their way, they did not scruple to plunder her. The gold ships of the Spaniards were never safe from attack unless strongly guarded, and even then they sometimes failed to escape. Spain had provoked English piracy by trying to shut out our countrymen from sharing in the riches of the American mines. Besides this she was regarded as the bitterest enemy of England, so that an Englishman thought he was helping his country when he plundered Spanish merchantmen on the sea.

It was in undertakings like these that such seamen as Hawkins, Frobisher, Drake, and others, famous for their brave deeds in the fight with the Spanish Armada, were trained. What the temper of our sailors then was may be learnt from the story of Sir Richard Grenville, the captain of the ship *Revenge*. In one of his voyages a Spanish fleet of fifty vessels came unexpectedly upon him while riding at anchor off the Azores, in the Atlantic Ocean. Though the *Revenge* was only half the size of any one of the Spanish ships, Grenville resolved to fight them all. From three o'clock in the afternoon till day-break next morning the little *Revenge* kept up the unequal battle, driving back one huge ship after another that tried to board her. At last

her powder was all gone, many of her crew killed, and all the rest wounded. Her captain could fight no more, and yet he would not give in. The Spaniards, admiring his bravery, carried Grenville, seriously wounded, to their admiral's ship. In a few hours, though carefully attended by his enemies, he died, saying, "Here die I, Richard Grenville, with a joyful and a quiet mind, for that I have ended my life as a good soldier ought to do, who has fought for his country and his Queen, for honour and religion."

The story of Grenville's famous fight in the *Revenge* has been told in poetry by our poet-laureate, Tennyson, and some day we may delight ourselves in reading his beautiful verses about this brave English sailor.

SUMMARY.

Commerce made great progress under Queen Elizabeth. London, Bristol, and Norwich were the three largest towns in the kingdom. Trade with Russia was begun by two vessels finding their way to Archangel, in an attempt to get to India by the north of Europe. The chief hope of the discoverers was to find gold.

com'-merce
pro'-gress
ar'-ti-cle

i'-vor-y
pro'-duce
feat-ure

sing'-u-lar
ru'-mours
pro'-vok-ed

LESSON LVII.

FIRST ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION.

WHILE men like Grenville and Drake were fighting the Spaniards upon the seas, other Englishmen were striving to plant colonies in America in the hope of rivalling Spain in the New World. Among the chief of these were two Devonshire gentlemen, Sir Walter Raleigh and Mr. Humphrey Gilbert, half-brothers. Raleigh's name is the best known, because he was so much at the court of Queen Elizabeth; but to his half-brother Gilbert belongs the credit of first forming a scheme to plant colonies on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean. Gilbert, however, was heartily seconded in all his plans by Raleigh, who also after his half-brother's death became the chief promoter of colonization.

In the summer of the year 1578 the Queen *granted* Gilbert a charter to discover and

possess any distant lands not in the possession of any Christian ruler. So a fleet of eleven ships was collected, and five hundred gentlemen and sailors, Walter Raleigh among the number, started off from Plymouth on a voyage of discovery. But the crews were so unruly, and many of the gentlemen volunteers so eager to plunder Spanish ships, that the first attempt at colonization came to nothing. Five years later Gilbert sailed again from Plymouth with five small vessels, one of which was furnished by Raleigh, who was then in favour at the court of Elizabeth. The expedition safely reached the island of Newfoundland. The men, however, were too restless and impatient to succeed in making a settlement. They wanted to become rich all at once. Unwilling to struggle with the difficulties of the place, they clamoured to be taken home.

Two ships only were left to bring the remains of the expedition back to England. One of these, the *Squirrel* by name, was only the size of a small yacht, about ten tons burden. In this Gilbert took a place, because there were many sick in the larger ships, and he would not allow others to encounter more dangers than himself. The passage home was

very stormy, but Gilbert did his best to encourage his companions. When the *Golden Hind*, for such was the name of the larger ship, came within hailing distance one stormy day, the brave leader cried out to its crew, "We are as near to heaven by sea as by land." That night, as the little *Squirrel* was sailing ahead, the men of the *Golden Hind* suddenly saw her lights disappear, and when daylight dawned nothing more was seen of the little craft. So perished Sir Humphrey Gilbert, the first Englishman to attempt the colonization of America.

Early in the following year, 1584 A.D., Sir Walter Raleigh received a grant of the charter which his half-brother had obtained, and fitted out two ships to explore the waste of America farther south than Newfoundland. He did not join the expedition. In the autumn the ships returned with most glowing accounts of the beauty and fertility of the country. Queen Elizabeth called the newly discovered district Virginia, and Raleigh at once began to make preparations for sending out a larger expedition to take possession of the land.

From time to time several expeditions were dispatched to Virginia, but the settlers were

not the men to make the colony successful. They thought more of finding gold-mines than of tilling the ground, and at last turned the friendly natives into bitter enemies. The colony was eventually deserted. Raleigh made no further attempts to colonize the district. He transferred to a company of merchants the right which he had received by charter from the Queen. In the following reign the real colonization of Virginia began in earnest, and it became the first of the numerous plantations settled by Englishmen in America.

From Virginia came the tobacco plant, the use of which soon became fashionable at the court of Elizabeth.

About the close of the reign a great trading company was formed for traffic with India. It was called the East India Company. It grew very wealthy and powerful, and became most famous in English history.

DATES.

| | |
|---|---------------------|
| First English attempt to found a colony in Virginia | . 1584 A.D. |
| East India Company founded | 1600 A.D. |

SUMMARY.

Two great adventurers of the age were Sir Walter Raleigh and his half-brother Sir Hum-

phrey Gilbert. Their chief exploit was to found the colony of Virginia. From that colony tobacco was first brought to England. The East India Company was founded in 1600.

Vol-un-teers, serving of their own free will.

col'on-ies
cred-it
dawn'-ed

pro-mot'-er
ves'-sels
squ'-ad

fur'-nish-ed
en-count'-er
per'-ish-ed



LESSON LVIII.

ENGLISH LITERATURE UNDER ELIZABETH.

IN the two previous Lessons we read how active were trade and adventure under Queen Elizabeth. But these were not the only glories of her famous reign. In education, learning, book-writing, and house-building the country made wonderful progress. The grammar-schools founded by Edward VI., and the numerous colleges built about the same time, were now beginning to bring forth fruit in the wide spread of education among the middle and lower classes of people. The Queen herself knew Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, and Italian, and we may take her knowledge as an example of the learning of the noble families.

The spread of education called forth a goodly number of book-writers. Some of these were men whose names will never be forgotten. In poetry especially the age of Eliza-

beth was a glorious one in our history. From the time of Chaucer, about whom we read in the Twenty-fifth Lesson, until this reign scarcely an English poet of any note had appeared. But now almost every educated gentleman tried in his young days to write verses of some kind, love-songs chiefly; and many of them did so well that their names are to be found in the history of our poetry. Of the many poets of the time, two stand out above the rest. One is Edmund Spenser; the other is William Shakespeare, the greatest of all in the long list of English poets. His name alone is sufficient to make the reign of Elizabeth glorious in literature.

Spenser became famous as a poet by the publication of the "Shepheardes Calender." His greatest work, however, is the "Faerie Queen." In this poem he pictures truth, justice, temperance, and other virtues, going forth in the world as knights to battle, with their opposite errors and sins. He makes use of fairies, dwarfs, giants, and the wonders of the new lands which had lately been discovered. In this way Spenser produced a book which charmed the court of Elizabeth and England generally, and one which will last as long as *our language*.

Shakespeare was born at Stratford-on-Avon, in Warwickshire, in the year 1564. His father was a tradesman of that place, but falling into poverty he was not able to give his son a good education. William, however, made good use of the learning he had, and so added to his knowledge as to become very accomplished. He went to London when a young man, and there made the acquaintance of some actors and play-writers, with whom he lived and worked for some years. Play-writing, or the drama as it is called, was almost a new thing in England. From the Norman times in England there were acted scenes from Scripture history, or the lives of saints, in which the clergy aimed to teach the people religious knowledge. Such actings were called miracle plays. Later on in our history vices and virtues were represented in rough and simple stories, and these were called moral plays. The next step in play-acting was to represent scenes and characters from real history. This beginning of the regular drama took place in the reign of Edward VI.; but under Elizabeth it made most rapid growth.

The theatre at this time was a most simple building. It was open to the weather except

above the stage, where the nobles and ladies were allowed to sit. There was no scenery, and the female parts were played by boys. Such was the theatre that Shakespeare joined ; but his wonderful gifts as a poet needed not the help of painted scenes or grand buildings to give success to his writings. He not only acted himself, but became the greatest playwright the world has ever seen. He outlived Elizabeth, and died at Stratford in the year 1616, at the age of fifty-two.

SUMMARY.

In the time of Elizabeth the love of reading became more general ; and two great poets arose. Edmund Spenser wrote the Faerie Queen, a long poetic parable. William Shakespeare, born at Stratford-on-Avon in 1564, wrote dramas which have given him the greatest name in the history of English letters. He died in 1616.

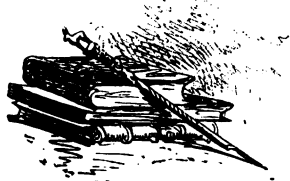
Lit'-er-a-ture, books valued for
their own sake, not be-

cause they teach any art
or science.

act'-ive
po'e-try

glor'-i-ous
suf'-fic'-i-ent

op'-po-site
ac-com-plish-ed



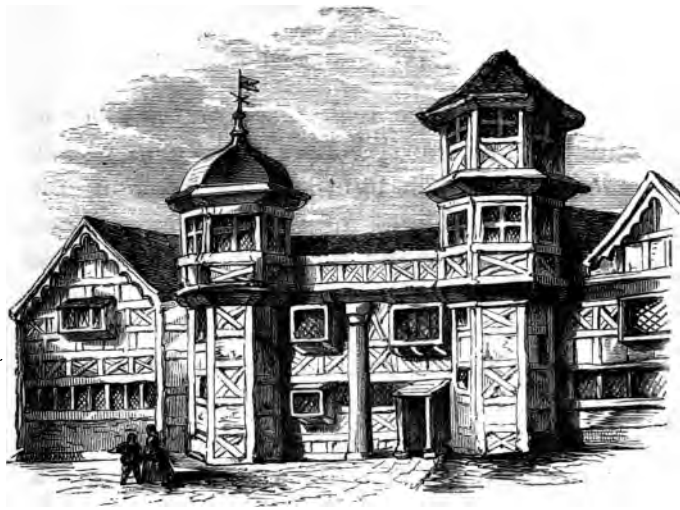
LESSON LIX.

SOCIAL CHANGES UNDER ELIZABETH.

A GREAT change took place in the mode of building the country houses of the gentry. In older times, when fighting was frequent, the gentry were obliged to build places of great strength to live in ; for their first care was safety. Now, when peace seemed to have settled upon the land, there came with peace an increase of wealth and a wish for more home comforts ; and then they changed their castles into palaces, or halls, or manor-houses. These new buildings were usually erected around a foursided courtyard, and were ornamented with groups of chimneys, broad bay windows filled with glass instead of loopholes and lattice work, while there were stately entrances leading into large halls and long corridors. The walls within were hung with painted cloths or tapestry, or panelled with oak or with fancy

woods brought from eastern countries. The castle moat, or ditch, and high walls gave way to lawns, terraces, flower-gardens, and avenues of trees.

The dwellings of the poor were not much improved. They were small wooden houses



plastered with mud, having small latticed windows. In towns, brick and stone were used for large buildings. The better class of houses had their fronts ornamented with wood-carving, *and the upper stories reached further forward than the lower ones, thus forming a covered*

way for foot-passengers. The streets were narrow, and the gutters usually offensive.

The supply of furniture was still very scanty. Rushes remained the usual covering for floors.



Carpets came into use towards the close of Elizabeth's reign, but chiefly as table-cloths.

Bedrooms were made more comfortable, and were well provided with beds of down, woollen blankets, and linen sheets. On the rich man's table might now be seen goblets of Venetian glass or of silver instead of cups of horn ; dishes

and plates of silver or of china instead of wooden platters; and dinner-knives, which took the place of the dagger that each man carried about with him. There were no forks; these had not yet come into use.

How much home comforts were increased may be learnt from what a writer of the time tells us about the country people of his day: "There are old men yet dwelling in the village where I remain which have noticed three things to be marvellously altered in England. One is the multitude of chimneys lately erected. Another is the great amendment of lodging, for our fathers have lien full oft upon straw pallets, and a good round log under their heads instead of a bolster or pillow. The third thing is the exchange of vessels, as of wooden platters into pewter, and wooden spoons into silver or tin. Such also was their poverty that if some one odd farmer or husbandman had been at the alehouse among six or seven of his neighbours, and there in bravery to show what store he had, did cast down his purse, and therein six shillings of silver, it was very likely that all the rest could not lay down so much against *it*. Whereas in my time the farmer will think *his gains* very small towards the end of his term,

if he have not six or seven years' rent lying by him, beside a fair garnish of pewter in his cupboard, three or four feather beds, so many coverlids and carpets of tapestry, a silver salt, a bowl of wine, and a dozen spoons to furnish up the suit."

Tobacco came into use at this time. As previously stated, it was brought from America by Sir Walter Raleigh's captains, and smoking very soon became so fashionable that arrangements for a dinner were thought to be incomplete without a supply of pipes. The story is told, that, when Raleigh's servant first saw his master smoking in the garden, he threw a bucket of water over him, thinking he was on fire.

SUMMARY.

In this age houses began to be built less like castles and more like modern residences. Rushes were used for carpets, carpets for table cloths. Venetian glass and silver were general. Dinner knives were laid on the table, but not forks.

Cor'-rid-ors, long passages.

er-ect'-ed
of-fens'-ive

lat'-tice
blan'-ket

a'-ven-ues
bols'-ter



LESSON LX.

TABLE OF SOVEREIGNS.

PLANTAGENET LINE.

FROM 1154 A.D. TO 1485 A.D. : 331 YEARS. 14 KINGS.

| | | | |
|------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| | | Henry II. began to reign 1154. | Reigned 35 years. |
| | | Richard I. | " 1189. " 10 " |
| | | John | " 1199. " 17 " |
| | | Henry III. | " 1216. " 56 " |
| | | Edward I. | " 1272. " 35 " |
| | | Edward II. | " 1307. " 20 " |
| | | Edward III. | " 1327. " 50 " |
| | | Richard II. | " 1377. " 22 " |
| HOUSE OF LANCASTER. | { | Henry IV. | " 1399. " 14 " |
| | { | Henry V. | " 1413. " 9 " |
| | { | Henry VI. | " 1422. " 39 " |
| HOUSE OF YORK. | { | Edward IV. | " 1461. " 22 " |
| | { | Edward V. | " 1483. " 2 months. |
| | { | Richard III. | " 1483. " 2 years. |

TUDOR LINE.

FROM 1485 A.D. TO 1603 A.D. : 118 YEARS. 5 SOVEREIGNS.

| | | | |
|--|--|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| | | Henry VII. began to reign 1485. | Reigned 24 years. |
| | | Henry VIII. | " 1509. " 38 " |
| | | Edward VI. | " 1547. " 6 " |
| | | Mary I. | " 1553. " 5 " |
| | | Elizabeth | " 1558. " 45 " |

APPENDIX.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF LEADING EVENTS.

| | | |
|--|---------------|-----------|
| Murder of Archbishop Becket . . . | (Henry II.) | 1170 A.D. |
| Conquest of Ireland | " | 1171 " |
| Magna Charta signed | (John) | 1215 " |
| People from the shires and towns called to Simon de Montfort's councils . | (Henry III.) | 1265 " |
| Conquest of Wales | (Edward I.) | 1282 " |
| John Balliol made King of Scotland . | " | 1292 " |
| The first model Parliament . . . | " | 1295 " |
| John Balliol dethroned | " | 1296 " |
| Death of Wallace | " | 1305 " |
| Capture of Calais | (Edward III.) | 1347 " |
| Death of the Black Prince | " | 1376 " |
| Peasant Revolt under Wat Tyler . | (Richard II.) | 1381 " |
| Joan of Arc saved Orleans | (Henry VI.) | 1429 " |
| " burnt at Rouen | " | 1431 " |
| Calais left as the only English posses- sion in France | " | 1451 " |
| Wars of the Roses began | " | 1455 " |
| Death of Warwick the "kingmaker" | (Edward IV.) | 1471 " |
| The Printing-press brought into Eng- land | " | 1474 " |
| Death of William Caxton | (Henry VII.) | 1491 " |
| Execution of Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick | " | 1499 " |
| Discovery of the West Indies by Columbus | " | 1492 " |
| Discovery of the North American Continent by Cabot | " | 1497 " |
| The Greek Testament of Erasmus printed | (Henry VIII.) | 1516 " |

| | | |
|--|---------------|-------------|
| Field of the Cloth of Gold | (Henry VIII.) | 1520 A.D. |
| Luther burnt the Pope's Bull | " | 1520 " |
| Tyndal's English New Testament printed | " | 1526 " |
| Question of the divorce of Queen Catherine began | " | 1527 " |
| Death of Cardinal Wolsey | " | 1530 " |
| England freed from the Pope's control | " | 1534 " |
| The English Bible placed in Churches | " | 1536 " |
| The monasteries pulled down | " | 1536—1539 " |
| The first Book of Common Prayer published | (Edward VI.) | 1549 " |
| Beginning of the Marian persecution | (Mary I.) | 1555 " |
| Archbishop Cranmer burnt at Oxford | " | 1556 " |
| Loss of Calais | " | 1558 " |
| The Roman Catholics withdrew from the Church of England | (Elizabeth) | 1570 " |
| First attempt to colonize Virginia | " | 1584 " |
| Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots | " | 1587 " |
| East India Company founded | " | 1600 " |

BATTLES.

| | | |
|--|----------------|-----------|
| Battle of Lewes | (Henry III.) | 1264 A.D. |
| " Evesham | " | 1265 " |
| " Stirling | (Edward I.) | 1297 " |
| " Falkirk | " | 1297 " |
| " Bannockburn | (Edward II.) | 1314 " |
| " Crecy | (Edward III.) | 1346 " |
| " Poitiers | " | 1356 " |
| " Agincourt | (Henry V.) | 1415 " |
| " St. Albans (first) | (Henry VI.) | 1455 " |
| " Wakefield | " | 1460 " |
| " Barnet | (Edward IV.) | 1471 " |
| " Tewkesbury | " | 1471 " |
| " Bosworth | (Richard III.) | 1485 " |
| " Stoke | (Henry VII.) | 1487 " |
| " Flodden | (Henry VIII.) | 1513 " |
| Defeat of the Spanish Armada | (Elizabeth) | 1588 " |

7

